

THE  
**CRITICAL REVIEW;**  
Series the Fifth.

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VOL. V.]

MAY, 1817.

[No. V.]

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ART. I.—*On the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation.* By DAVID RICARDO. Royal 8vo. pp. 589. London, Murray, 1817.

THE author of this work has been, we believe, largely connected with the mercantile and monied interest of the city of London, and has much practical experience on the subject of which he treats. The misfortune generally has been, that questions of moral science connected with the more active pursuits of life, to which class political economy belongs, have been examined by philosophers accustomed to metaphysical inquiry, but who have not possessed that knowledge of the circumstances and conduct of mankind which would enable them to compare their theories with existing facts, so as to remove the obscurity of the one, by the light afforded from the other. The difficulty is the greater in dissipating the darkness with which the science has been overspread, because the ancients have in no degree assisted us in its developement; and with the moderns it has therefore all the disadvantages of subjects in their infancy, which have to struggle with elements that are new to them, and what, in other situations, would be the most easy and familiar, in the present occasions obstructions and embarrassments, that frequently disappoint the most promising efforts.

As political economy is usually treated, it is loaded with such an accumulation of simple truisms, that a man of intellect is reluctant to spend his time, either in the explanation, or in the perusal, of what appears to him to be so obvious. At least three-fourths of a book of this kind is composed of what logicians call intuition, where the slightest attention to the ideas compared suffices to satisfy us how far they are connected or disjoined. There is nothing more fatiguing to the mind than such a long string of simple propositions, where the truth uniformly carries its own

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evidence with it; a single predicate is all that is contemplated, and there is little or no scope for further inquiry.

We have mentioned this as the way in which the science is commonly treated, and not as the method in which it may and ought to be examined. Political economy is founded upon certain incontestible principles, but those who are acquainted with their application to this subject, must have long studied the nature of man and his history in society, and must have looked, not only to public law and institution, but to the operation of these under the multifarious forms they have assumed. With regard to the importance of the inquiry, when its valuable secrets are disclosed by such a scheme connecting hypothesis with experiment, no doubt can possibly be entertained, since its office is to ascertain the best and shortest road to national prosperity and happiness.

The arrangement of this work is not very different from that which is adopted by Adam Smith, and the author has so largely borrowed from that learned professor, that he has not only incorporated the excellencies, but sometimes the defects of his original, equally as to form and substance. This gentleman, who commenced author in 1810, and who has favoured the world with a variety of publications, has probably occupied his time so much in writing, that he has not reserved a sufficient interval for reading on the present subject of his attention. It is perhaps on this account that, although he mentions several books of reputation, the latest and the best has escaped his notice; we refer to the *Cours d'Economie Politique*, par Henri Storch, Counsellor of State, and Tutor to the Arch-Dukes Nicolas and Michel of Russia. It appeared in 1815, and being in six pretty bulky octavo volumes, it might have been imagined this production would not have been overlooked.\*

Nearly fifty pages, of which the first chapter of the work is composed, is restricted to the subject of value, and, like Adam Smith, he distinguishes it into value in use and value in exchange.

"It has been observed by Adam Smith, that 'the word Value has two different meanings, and sometimes expresses the utility of some particular object, and sometimes the power of purchasing other goods which the possession of that object conveys. The one may be called *value in use*; the other, *value in exchange*. The

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\* See a Review of this work in our Number for December last.

things,' he continues, 'which have the greatest value in use, have frequently little or no value in exchange; and, on the contrary, those which have the greatest value in exchange, have little or no value in use.' Water and air are abundantly useful; they are indeed indispensable to existence, yet, under ordinary circumstances, nothing can be obtained in exchange for them. Gold, on the contrary, though of little use compared with air or water, will exchange for a great quantity of other goods.

"Utility then is not the measure of exchangeable value, although it is absolutely essential to it. If a commodity were in no way useful,—in other words, if it could in no way contribute to our gratification,—it would be destitute of exchangeable value, however scarce it might be, or whatever quantity of labour might be necessary to procure it.

"Possessing utility, commodities derive their exchangeable value from two sources: from their scarcity, and from the quantity of labour required to obtain them." (p. 1—2.)

Utility, it is here said, is not the measure of value. What else is? The author replies, scarcity and labour. The first he pretty much disposes of, remarking, that it is referable to a very small part of commodities, and the consideration is reduced, as "*de minimis non est disputandum*," to labour. Labour then, according to him, is the measure of exchangeable value. Adam Smith lays it down broadly and circumstantially, book i. c. 5—"Labour is alone the ultimate and real standard by which the value of all commodities can at all times and places be estimated and compared. It is their real price; money is their nominal price only."

Nothing can be more necessary than a strict examination of this proposition, for it is in vain to attempt to acquire any correct notion of political economy without a clear understanding with regard to it. Labour may be the source of value, and yet not the measure of value; the fountain and the streamlet must not be confounded, or we shall most egregiously miscalculate. Labour is no doubt the origin of value, but it is not on that account, says M. Storch, the measure of value. Labour, to be the measure of exchangeable value, which is here exclusively considered, wants, according to the new school, that universality in its application which is necessary to constitute the criterion of value; hence, the same commodity of great value in one country, is of none in another; and again, at one time in the same country it may be of high estimation, and at another time wholly worthless. The compass, a curious

instrument, produced by great ingenuity and labour, is of much value in Europe; but in the islands of the South Seas, where its utility is not known, it is of no value otherwise than as a toy. So in the earliest periods of navigation, the canoe employed in the South Seas would have been extremely valuable in England; but since the improvements in ship-building, under which the most magnificent machine of art has been produced, it is useless for any purpose but curiosity or fire-wood.

If, then, labour be not the measure of value, by what resource of mensuration shall value be determined? Professor Storch endeavours to answer this question: *the opinion that our judgment forms on the utility of things constitutes their value.* This doctrine, it must be admitted, has the character of universality both with regard to space and time, and is applicable as a measure of value equally to the Friendly Islands and the British Islands—equally to Great Britain in the time of Galgacus and George. Opinion not only includes in this connection utility, but also the knowledge of that utility. On this principle, commodities have not value because they are produced by a certain portion of labour, but because they are useful and that utility is ascertained.

If the opposing economists with Mr. Ricardo allow that they have confounded cause and effect—that is, the degree or measure of value with the labour by which it is produced, they may still contend, in answer to such reasoning, that water and air are useful, and their utility is acknowledged, yet they have no exchangeable value. There can be no doubt of the correctness of this proposition, but perhaps a little attention to the meaning of the term *utility* as here applied, will shew that it is not inconsistent with the notion of the foreign professor. If we attended with the same precision to the use of words which mathematicians do in their writings, human knowledge would advance in other branches of science with an equal step; but the misfortune is, that such accuracy is little regarded, and least of all by the writers on political economy.

Utility is either absolute or relative: a state of absolute utility is here applied to any thing possessing useful properties, independently of labour employed upon it, as air and water; a state of relative utility is here used in relation to labour, as ore or flint, which become useful when by labour the metal is extracted from the ore, and the glass is prepared from the other. The commodity containing in



itself absolute utility being presented in its useful state from the great elaboratory of Nature, as air and water by mutual decomposition and recomposition, possess no relative utility in their primitive condition as improved by labour, but it is only this relative utility that constitutes value; and the economists who consider labour as the measure of value, can have no other in their contemplation.

To refer to this definition or description. It was said, that "the opinion our judgment forms on the utility of things constitutes their value;" but that is of no relative utility as prepared by human labour, which we can procure every where as the boon of indulgent Nature, like air and water. A pneumatic machine has been contrived, by which of two kinds of air, water is formed; and again, by the apparatus water is restored to the same distinctions of air: but if this curious process were by human labour carried on on the extensive scale with which Nature conducts it, so as to supply the earth with the ærial fluid by which it is surrounded, and the depths of the ocean with the aqueous fountains they contain, it would be of no relative utility, because Nature has already accomplished what is required, and the labour employed would be a repetition unproductive of any beneficial purpose. The term utility, then, being resorted to only in this relative meaning, it may be argued that the position of M. Storch is established, and *labour* is not the measure of value, as these economists suppose, but *opinion*, according to the theory of their opponent.

We are aware that this subject is one of much intricacy, and requiring that the terms employed should be distinctly and fully explained: it is not within our design, however, to enter further into it; and it is the less necessary to do so, because we have already expressed briefly our sentiments regarding it in the review of the work to which we have already referred.

The author says—

"The exchangeable value of all commodities, whether they be manufactured, or the produce of the mines, or the produce of land, is always regulated, not by the less quantity of labour that will suffice for their production under circumstances highly favourable, and exclusively enjoyed by those who have peculiar facilities of production; but by the greater quantity of labour necessarily bestowed on their production by those who have no such facilities; by those who continue to produce them under the most unfavourable

circumstances, the most unfavourable under which the quantity of produce required renders it necessary to carry on the production.

"Thus, in a charitable institution, where the poor are set to work with the funds of benefactors, the general prices of the commodities, which are the produce of such a work, will not be governed by the peculiar facilities afforded to these workmen, but by the common, usual, and natural difficulties, which every other manufacturer will have to encounter. The manufacturer enjoying none of these facilities might indeed be driven altogether from the market, if the supply afforded by these favoured workmen were equal to all the wants of the community; but if he continued the trade, it would be only on condition that he should derive from it the usual and general rate of profits on stock; and that could only happen when his commodity sold for a price proportioned to the quantity of labours bestowed on its production." (p. 59--60.)

The reasoning in the preceding paragraphs is manifestly incorrect, and would lead to the most absurd conclusions, confining the benefit to the individual, and not extending to the public the improved facilities of human labour. The exchangeable value of all commodities is regulated, not exclusively either, by the less quantity of labour under favourable circumstances, nor the greater quantity under unfavourable circumstances, but is in proportion to the joint operation of both, and contrary to the view taken by the writer, the manufacturers, enjoying none of the facilities, are gradually deprived of their employment in proportion as the workmen, under favourable circumstances, supply the wants of the community, and when the latter are adequate to the whole supply, the former are "driven altogether from the market."

The author makes the following observations, which seem to oppose the ancient theory of the philosophers, that happiness is increased by diminishing the wants of mankind.

"In some countries of Europe, and many of Asia, as well as in the islands in the South Seas, the people are miserable, either from a vicious government or from habits of indolence, which make them prefer present ease and inactivity, though without security against want, to a moderate degree of exertion, with plenty of food and necessaries. By diminishing their population, no relief would be afforded, for productions would diminish in as great, or even in a greater, proportion. The remedy for the evils under which Poland and Ireland suffer, which are similar to those experienced in the South Sea, is to stimulate exertion, to create new wants, and to implant new tastes; for those countries must accumulate a much larger amount of capital, before the diminished rate of production

will render the progress of capital necessarily less rapid than the progress of population. The facility with which the wants of the Irish are supplied, permits that people to pass a great part of their time in idleness: if the population were diminished, this evil would increase, because wages would rise, and therefore the labourer would be enabled, in exchange for a still less portion of his labour, to obtain all that his moderate wants require.

"Give to the Irish labourer a taste for the comforts and enjoyments which habit has made essential to the English labourer, and he would be then content to devote a further portion of his time to industry, that he might be enabled to obtain them. Not only would all the food now produced be obtained, but a vast additional value in those other commodities, to the production of which the now unemployed labour of the country might be directed. In those countries, where the labouring classes have the fewest wants, and are contented with the cheapest food, the people are exposed to the greatest vicissitudes and miseries. They have no place of refuge from calamity; they cannot seek safety in a lower station; they are already so low, that they can fall no lower. On any deficiency of the chief article of their subsistence, there are few substitutes of which they can avail themselves, and dearth to them is attended with almost all the evils of famine." (100—102.)

Mr. Preston, in his *Observations on the State of the Nation*, says, the poor-rate should be so regulated, that it should be borne by the community at large in just proportions, and not be exclusively paid by the landed interest, and it must be admitted that there is the character of justice in this proposition." For the purpose of the poor-rate, he considers "the rental should be computed at 90,000,000*l.*; placemen, &c. at 20,000,000*l.*; and the funded property at 45,000,000*l.*; making an aggregate amount of 155,000,000*l.* a year; and houses, docks, &c. should be computed, for the purpose of this tax, at double their annual rental value, as the means of taxing personal property; so that there would be an addition of at least 20,000,000*l.* making together 175,000,000*l.*""

Mr. Ricardo is an enemy to the establishment of such a general fund, contributed to by all classes of society for the relief of the poor, and he conceives a sparing application of such relief as the principal object.

"It is not by raising, in any manner different from the present, the fund from which the poor are supported, that the evil can be mitigated. It would not only be no improvement, but it would be an aggravation of the distress which we wish to see removed, if the

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\* Vide Critical Review for November last, page 444.

fund were increased in amount, or were levied according to some late proposals, as a general fund from the country at large. The present mode of its collection and application has served to mitigate its pernicious effects. Each parish raises a separate fund for the support of its own poor. Hence it becomes an object of more interest and more practicability to keep the rates low, than if one general fund were raised for the relief of the poor of the whole kingdom. A parish is much more interested in an economical collection of the rate, and a sparing distribution of relief, when the whole saving will be for its own benefit, than if hundreds of other parishes were to partake of it." (p. 113—114.)

It will have been noticed, that in the quotation we have made from Mr. Preston's pamphlet, the funded property, as liable to the poor-rate, is taken at half the rental of the country, or at 45,000,000*l*. We are very far from attributing to our author any narrow and mercenary views, but we cannot avoid thinking, that without being aware of it, from his intimate connection with the monied interest, he is considerably biassed on this subject, and is not sufficiently willing to listen to the complaints of the landed interest by which it is demanded, that the wants of the necessitous should be equally supplied from every description of property, and that the fund-holder should bear his proportion of the burthen.

Although Mr. Ricardo, as an intelligent commercial man, and as an admirer of the principles of Dr. Smith, is no advocate for legislative interference for the purpose of diverting trade from its natural channels, yet, in his consideration of the poor laws, he would have the parliament interpose even to prevent early marriages, that the country might not be overspread with a needy population. He does not seem to calculate on the profligacy and idleness such an interference would occasion, and on the regularity and industry produced by the indulgence of the natural appetites under the matrimonial restrictions, with the interesting pledges in such circumstances afforded, for the permanence of those qualities and habits which form the character of a good citizen.

Although there is much other important matter in the sequel of this world, yet the subjects are not new, and the manner in which they are treated has no peculiar attractions; we therefore shall content ourselves with the portion we have already noticed, remarking only, that there is one branch of the enquiry to which an entire volume is devoted by M. Storch, (vol. 5), that has wholly escaped both Dr.

Smith, and Mr. Ricardo, and it is what the foreign Professor we have named calls, "theorie de la civilisation," or the "biens internes." Since we have devoted six or seven pages exclusively to that division of political economy, when the work we refer to, published at St. Petersburg, was under our review, we do not think it necessary in this place to add a single observation with regard to it, but we are desirous that it should receive the future attention of Mr. Ricardo; and should he resume the pen to pronounce his opinion on its merits, we shall be happy to give his remarks with our comments upon them, a place in this periodical publication.

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ART. II.—*A Narrative of the Briton's Voyage to Pitcairn's Island. By Lieutenant SHILLIBEER, R. N. Illustrated with Etchings by the Author. 8vo. pp. 179. Taunton, printed for the Author, and published in London by Law and Whitaker, 1817.*

THE present, we believe, is the first account published on the authority of an Englishman, of the present state of that interesting colony in Pitcairn's Island, and on this account the volume in our hands particularly excites and deserves attention: the author, a lieutenant in the Royal Marines, is obviously a young man of intelligence; and limited as is the ambition of that department of the public service in the line of their profession, he seems naturally anxious to gratify his hopes in another direction. Whatever may be his merits, in the present day we can scarcely promise him great success: the pursuit he has chosen is at least very unprofitable, in a pecuniary point of view. Notwithstanding this discouragement, it seems a little extraordinary, considering the opportunities enjoyed by officers of the navy and army, that so few works of voyages and travels should have been published by them: of course, we exclude from this remark such productions as have been the result of express employment on the part of Government, or of some public company.

Lieutenant Shillibeer is qualified for such an undertaking in more respects than one; for besides generally conveying his meaning in perspicuous language, he has accompanied his descriptions by portraits of remarkable persons and views of interesting places, not only drawn, but etched



by himself with considerable skill: of course, we do not mean to say that they are by any means first-rate performances, but comparing the account given of them with the scenes represented, they appear to correspond and to give as good a notion of them as is at all necessary; indeed often much better than by the laboured productions of professed artists, who are rather desirous of shewing their own proficiency and taste, than of supplying faithful resemblances. Another advantage (and in these times not an immaterial one) is, that Lieutenant Shillibeer's book is sold for about as many shillings as a more pompous and finished work would cost guineas. In the engravings of Lieut. Shillibeer, if the execution be not delicate, it is spirited; and the principal fault we have to find with him is, that the letter-press by which they are accompanied does not always rival them in ease, freedom, and simplicity.

The *Marquesas* was the extent of the voyage of the Briton frigate of 44 guns, commanded by Sir Thos. Staines, and which in the beginning of 1814 was sent out round the Straights of Magellan in pursuit of the Essex American frigate, Capt. Porter. This object was disappointed by the previous capture of that ship by some other British cruizers in those seas. In her progress out and home, the Briton touched at many interesting situations, regarding which comparatively little intelligence has hitherto been published, and of these the author of the work in our hands gives such accounts as he was able (obviously with considerable industry) to obtain: he also now and then enters into detail regarding places often visited and well known: certainly this part of his work might have been omitted, though he has sometimes supplied particulars not noticed by previous travellers. We apprehend, however, that the latter remark will more frequently apply to the earlier and later portion of Lieut. Shillibeer's narrative, which of course refers to situations nearer home, and consequently more within reach. We shall omit the whole of what he says regarding Madeira and Rio Janeiro, with the exception of the following description of the treatment of African slaves at the latter, which appears to be more inhuman than any thing ever yet heard of: if it be correct, (and there seems no reason to doubt it, but its extreme and almost impossible barbarity,) we need no longer be surprised, that those who have compared the two, should maintain that a slave-driver in the West Indies is the very model of gentleness and kindness.

"The inhuman and barbarous traffic of slaves, is carried on to the greatest extent it is possible to be imagined; and, as the immediate and private revenue of the Crown would receive a severe shock by the abolition of so unnatural a barter, there can be, I fear, but little hopes of so desirable an object being speedily effected, without the humanity of the European states turning their recommendations into commands, and enforcing compliance; which I am persuaded would be the case, were the different legislators but faintly impressed with the horrors that constantly occur at this place, and the barbarity to which those unhappy people are hourly subjected. —The labour, let it be ever so laborious, is performed by slaves, and it is seldom there are more than six apportioned to the heaviest burdens. I have frequently seen as few as four groaning under the weight of a pipe of wine, which they have had to remove through the town. Many of those poor creatures are bred to trades, and are sent out daily or weekly by their masters, with orders to bring him a certain sum at the expiration of that time, and what they can get over they may consider as their own; but they are always so highly rated, that it is with the greatest difficulty they can raise the sum nominated; and in case of defalcation, it is attributed to a want of exertion, or laziness, which subjects the unhappy victim to a punishment, for a crime the master alone has committed.

"Nothing can be more common than instances of this nature." (p. 15—16.)

He then proceeds to relate an instance of an unhappy slave, who had been brought up to the trade of a barber, and who being sent out to earn a certain sum by his cruel master, was unable to raise it in the time fixed: he then proceeds in these terms:—

"As the time approached when he must render to his master an account, he became greatly distressed, and despaired of accomplishing his promise. He went with tears in his eyes, tendered what he had gained, and assured him of having used every means to raise the specific sum, and implored a remission of punishment, or a suspension until the following Monday, which at length was granted him, but not without threats of many additional stripes in case of failure. The time fast approached when he must return. He was still deficient. He reached the door of his master's house, when, in despair of being forgiven, and dreading the ordeal he had to undergo, he took from his pocket a razor, and with a desperate hand nearly severed his head from his body. I saw him, several days after, lying in this mangled state near the place where he had perpetrated it.—This horrid deed had no other effect on the master, than to increase his severity towards the others, on whom he imposed heavier burthens, to recompense him for the loss he had so recently sustained.

"I inquired the cause of so many slaves lying dead in the streets, and was assured, that when they were ill, and thought past recovery, they were disowned by their masters, to evade the expenses of a funeral, and thrown out of doors, when their miserable lives were soon brought to as miserable a termination. When any of these bodies are found, which constantly occurs, there is a soldier placed over it with a box; nor is the corpse removed from the spot, until a sufficient sum has been left by the passengers to defray the expenses attendant on the interment. I witnessed several instances of this nature during the period we lay in the harbour.—The cruelties these unhappy people are subjected to, is more calculated to fill a volume, than to be brought within the narrow compass of so small a work as this; and I am sorry to say, the Europeans, of whatever nation, instead of setting a humane example to wretches whose hearts had been long callous to every feeling of sensibility, vie with each other in minutely imitating their unfeeling conduct." (p. 17—19.)

We shall not accompany the author on his uninteresting, though boisterous passage, round the southern point of the continent of America; nor do we think it necessary to state where, among the islands northward up the coast of Chili, the ship took in wood and water. During a part of this voyage, the wind blew so strongly and so favourably, that the Briton passed over no less than 3,000 miles in fourteen days: this circumstance, however extraordinary it may appear, is we believe not very singular in those seas. Sir Henry Martyn's Island, called by the natives Novaheevah, was the first place of importance at which the author arrived. Many of the particulars furnished by Mr. Shillibeer of the manners of the people, and the nature of the place, agree with the accounts in the *Missionary Voyages*, to which indeed he refers: we quote a portion of a long chapter devoted to this subject.

"The cava, or spirits, drank here, possess very inebriating qualities, and bring on almost an immediate dizziness. It is produced from the leaves and roots of a plant, which, being chewed by women of the lower order, and spit into calabashes, or receivers, and mixed with the milk from the cocoa-nut, is left to ferment; after which it is strained off, when it soon becomes fit for use. The kings and a few chiefs can alone afford to indulge themselves in this delicious nectar, and to those it produces a kind of dry scrofula in the skin, with soreness in the eyes; which was very conspicuous in the old king; for, notwithstanding he had undergone the ordeal of tattooing to an immense degree, his skin was covered with such a dry white scale, that gave him, instead of a black, the appearance of being a light grey colour.

" These people are seldom visited by sickness, which may in some measure be attributed to the simplicity of their diet, and their great attention to cleanliness. It is considered necessary with them to bathe at least three times a day, which greatly diminishes that sour offensive exhalation, proceeding from those people of a similar climate who are less attentive to their persons. In case of accidents, there are people who profess the art of surgery, and in setting fractures they are expert and successful. I saw but one operation of this nature, which was on a broken thigh: the swelling being reduced, the part fractured was bound carefully round with large leaves, when several splints, or smooth pieces of bamboo, were applied, which being bound with great caution, and the limb confined in one position, the operation was finished. One of the faculty was solicitous to be supplied with lancets; but I could not ascertain from Wilson, if phlebotomy had ever been practised, or if the old man understood the use of these instruments: however, he was furnished with enough to open all the veins in the island.

" Sir Thomas Staines taking great interest in the voyage, and wishing to know beyond a vague conjecture their mode of fighting, solicited the old king to cause a sham fight to be performed upon the plain, which he acceded to, and the old warrior took great pleasure in going through all the various evolutions. For the club, a tolerably-sized stick was substituted; for the spear, a piece of bamboo; and the slingers, instead of stone, threw the small bread-fruit. Thus armed, about three hundred of the most experienced went forth to the plain. The king, for the first time, was carried on a superb litter which we had made for him on board. He gave direction to the chiefs for the formation of both armies, which were drawn up in the following manner:—about thirty principal warriors, with clubs, formed the first line; the second was composed of spearmen; and the slingers on the flanks. The battle commenced by a single combat between two chiefs, who displayed great powers, both in agility and skill, and were struggling manfully when the signal was given to advance. A terrific and hideous shout followed. The slingers now began, but were obliged to retire on coming within the reach of the spears. The advance was rapid, and as the parties closed, so did the confusion increase: club came in contact with club, and spear with spear: the slingers stood aloof. The conch was at length sounded, when each party separated—the slingers on either side filing into the rear of their respective flanks to secure their retreat. They did not cease throwing stones until they were rendered of no effect. Both parties again drew up in their original order, and rested on their arms. The distance, as well as accuracy with which they throw a stone, is almost incredible; the spearmen are also very expert. The countenances of many, by being hit by shot from the slings, became quite ferocious: many were knocked down, but none received injury: and thus ended the representation of a battle, which must have been productive of great pleasure to every beholder." (p. 53—56.)

It seems that at Novaheevah, Captain Porter, in the American frigate *Essex*, had remained some time, and, according to our author, had committed some dreadful outrages against the Typees, a warlike tribe of the island, because they could not supply him with as many pigs as he required for the use of his ship; it is even asserted that he caused fourteen of these savages to be shot, and that he compelled them to do him homage as king of the island, while sitting upon a temporary throne erected in his cabin. How far these statements (which Mr. Shillibeer received second-hand) are exaggerated, we know not, but we can conceive it possible, that a man who would act in such a tragedy, would not be averse to playing the principal character in the ludicrous farce by which it was followed. Certain it is, that not only the Typees, but the natives in general of Novaheevah, entertained a cordial hatred for Capt. Porter. In the manner in which Lieut. Shillibeer relates these circumstances, we observe a little too much of party feeling, and a bitterness of rancour, which, if the American were the contemptible wretch described, he is too low and too degraded to call forth. Capt. Porter took possession of the island in the name of his republic, and the declaration which he buried in a bottle, under a flag-staff, is a curious document.

#### " CAPTAIN PORTER'S DECLARATION.

" 'It is hereby made known to the world, that I David Porter, a Captain in the Navy of the United States of America, and now in command of the United States frigate *Essex*, have on the part of the said United States, taken possession of the Island called by the natives *Nooaheevah*, generally known by the name of Sir Henry Martyn's Island, but now called *Maddison's Island*; that by the request and assistance of the friendly tribes residing in the valley of *Tu-huony*, as well as the tribes residing in the mountains, whom I have conquered and rendered tributary to our flag, I have caused the village of *Maddison* to be built, consisting of six convenient houses, a rope walk, bakery, and other appurtenances; and for the protection of the same, I have constructed a fort calculated to mount sixteen guns, whereon I have mounted four, and have called the same *Fort Maddison*.

" 'Presents, consisting of the produce of the Island, to a great amount, have been brought in by every tribe in the Island, not excepting the most remote.' Here he goes on to enumerate the tribes, after which he says, 'Our right to this island being founded on priority of discovery, conquest and possession, cannot be disputed; but the natives to secure themselves that friendly protection which their defenceless situation so much required, have requested to be



admitted into the great American Family; whose pure republican policy approaches so near their own; and, in order to encourage those views to their own interest and happiness, as well as to render secure our claim to an island, valuable on so many considerations, I have taken upon myself to promise them they shall be so adopted; that our chief shall be their chief, and they having given me assurances that such of their brethren, as may hereafter visit them from the United States, shall enjoy a welcome and hospitable reception among them, and be furnished with whatever refreshments and supplies the island may afford; that they will protect them against their enemies, and as far as lays in their power will prevent the subjects of Great Britain (knowing them to be such) from coming among them until peace shall take place between the two nations.' " (p. 69—70.)

We are the more inclined to credit our author's assertions respecting Capt. Porter, because he takes occasion to do justice to other officers of the *Essex*, who had evinced to their British prisoners a disposition directly the reverse of that of their superior. We shall now hasten to that portion of the volume which relates to the more interesting subject of Pitcairn's Island. Our readers are probably aware that the semi-British colony there settled, consists of the immediate descendants of the crew of the *Bounty*, which, headed by Lieut. Christian, rose upon their commander Capt. Bligh, on a voyage the object of which was to convey the bread-fruit tree to the West Indies. At the time of the present visit by the *Briton* frigate, the only one of the original insurgent settlers remaining alive, was a man of the name of Adams; the rest were the children of the mutineers, and among them the son of the ring-leader, named Friday Fletcher October Christian.

It appears that it was not the intention of Sir Thomas Staines to have touched at Pitcairn's island, but he arrived there in consequence of a miscalculation of the latitude, and the force of the currents in that part of the Pacific. The unexpected appearance of the *Briton*, and the visits of these singular colonists, are thus related by Lieut. Shillibeer: the account very much resembles that which was made public not long ago, on the authority of a French navigator of the name of Folgier, who was there a short time before the *Briton*.

" At this moment I believe neither Captain Bligh of the *Bounty*, nor Christian, had entered any of our thoughts, and in waiting the approach of the strangers, we prepared to ask them some questions in the language of those people we had so recently left. They came—

It seems that at Novaheevah, Captain Porter, in the American frigate *Essex*, had remained some time, and, according to our author, had committed some dreadful outrages against the Typees, a warlike tribe of the island, because they could not supply him with as many pigs as he required for the use of his ship; it is even asserted that he caused fourteen of these savages to be shot, and that he compelled them to do him homage as king of the island, while sitting upon a temporary throne erected in his cabin. How far these statements (which Mr. Shillibeer received second-hand) are exaggerated, we know not, but we can conceive it possible, that a man who would act in such a tragedy, would not be averse to playing the principal character in the ludicrous farce by which it was followed. Certain it is, that not only the Typees, but the natives in general of Novaheevah, entertained a cordial hatred for Capt. Porter. In the manner in which Lieut. Shillibeer relates these circumstances, we observe a little too much of party feeling, and a bitterness of rancour, which, if the American were the contemptible wretch described, he is too low and too degraded to call forth. Capt. Porter took possession of the island in the name of his republic, and the declaration which he buried in a bottle, under a flag-staff, is a curious document.

#### “ CAPTAIN PORTER'S DECLARATION.

“ ‘ It is hereby made known to the world, that I David Porter, a Captain in the Navy of the United States of America, and now in command of the United States frigate *Essex*, have on the part of the said United States, taken possession of the Island called by the natives *Nooaheevah*, generally known by the name of Sir Henry Martyn's Island, but now called *Maddison's Island*; that by the request and assistance of the friendly tribes residing in the valley of *Tu-huony*, as well as the tribes residing in the mountains, whom I have conquered and rendered tributary to our flag, I have caused the village of *Maddison* to be built, consisting of six convenient houses, a rope walk, bakery, and other appurtenances; and for the protection of the same, I have constructed a fort calculated to mount sixteen guns, whereon I have mounted four, and have called the same *Fort Maddison*.

“ ‘ Presents, consisting of the produce of the Island, to a great amount, have been brought in by every tribe in the Island, not excepting the most remote.’ Here he goes on to enumerate the tribes, after which he says, ‘ Our right to this island being founded on priority of discovery, conquest and possession, cannot be disputed; but the natives to secure themselves that friendly protection which their defenceless situation so much required, have requested to be

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and for me to picture the wonder which was conspicuous in every countenance, at being hailed in perfect English, what was the name of the ship, and who commanded her, would be impossible—our surprize can alone be conceived. The Captain answered, and now a regular conversation commenced. He requested them to come alongside, and the reply was, 'We have no boat-hook to hold on by.' 'I will throw you a rope,' said the Captain. 'If you do we have nothing to make it fast to,' was the answer. However, they at length came on board, exemplifying not the least fear, but their astonishment was unbounded.

"After the friendly salutation of good morrow, Sir, from the first man who entered (Mackey), for that was his name, 'Do you know,' said he, 'one William Bligh, in England?' This question threw a new light on the subject, and he was immediately asked if he knew one Christian, and the reply was given with so much natural simplicity, that I shall here use his proper words. 'Oh yes,' said he, 'very well, his son is in the boat there, coming up, his name is Friday Fletcher October Christian. His father is dead now—he was shot by a black fellow.' Several of them had now reached the ship, and the scene was become exceedingly interesting; every one betrayed the greatest anxiety to know the ultimate fate of that misled young man, of whose end so many vague reports had been in circulation, and those who did not ask questions, devoured with avidity every word which led to an elucidation of the mysterious termination of the unfortunate Bounty." (p. 81—83.)

Lieut. Shillibeer proceeds to state, that the questions put to Mackey and others soon became extremely numerous, and, in order to make his narrative as perspicuous as possible, he inserts the dialogue which took place, as nearly as he could collect it. Our readers will no doubt still participate in the anxiety of the crew of the Briton upon this subject, although curiosity may have been in some degree satiated by the promulgation of the intelligence to which we before alluded, and with which our author could not at that time have been acquainted.

"Question.—Christian, you say, was shot?

"Answer.—Yes, he was.

"Q. By whom?

"A. A black fellow shot him.

"Q. What cause do you assign for the murder?

"A. I know no reason, except a jealousy which I have heard then existed between the people of Otaheite and the English. Christian was shot in the back while at work in his yam plantation.

"Q. What became of the man who killed him?

"A. Oh! that black fellow was shot afterwards by an Englishman.

" Q. Was there any other disturbance between the Otahetians and the English, after the death of Christian ?

" A. Yes, the black fellows rose, shot two Englishmen, and wounded John Adams, who is now the only remaining man who came in the Bounty.

" Q. How did Adams escape being murdered ?

" A. He hid himself in the wood ; and the same night the women, enraged at the murder of the English (to whom they were more partial than their countrymen), rose and put every Otahetian to death in their sleep. This saved Adams, his wounds were soon healed, and although old, he now enjoys good health.

" Q. How many men and women did Christian bring with him in the Bounty ?

" A. Nine white men, six from Otaheite, and eleven women.

" Q. And how many are there now on the island ?

" A. In all we have forty-eight.

" Q. Have you ever heard Adams say how long it is since he came to the island ?

" A. I have heard it is about 25 years ago.

" Q. And what became of the Bounty ?

" A. After every thing useful was taken out of her, she was run on shore, set fire to, and burnt.

" Q. Have you ever heard how many years it is since Christian was shot ?

" A. I understand it was about two years after his arrival at the island.

" What became of Christian's wife ?

" She died soon after Christian's son was born ; and I have heard that Christian took forcibly the wife of one of the black fellows to supply her place, and which was the chief cause of his being shot.

Q. Then, Fletcher October Christian is the oldest on the island, except John Adams, and the old women ?

" A. Yes, he is the first born on the island.

" Q. At what age do you marry ?

" A. Not before 19 or 20.

" Q. Are you allowed to have more than one wife ?

" A. No ! we can have but one, and it is wicked to have more.

" Q. Have you been taught any religion ?

" A. Yes, a very good religion.

" Q. In what do you believe ?

" A. I believe in God, the Father Almighty, &c. (Here he went through the whole of the Belief.)

" Q. Who first taught you this Belief ?

" A. John Adams says it was first by F. Christian's order, and that he likewise caused a prayer to be said every day at noon.

" Q. And what is the prayer ?

" A. It is—' I will arise and go to my father, and say unto him, Father, I have sinned against heaven, and before thee, and am no more worthy of being called thy son.'



- " Q. Do you continue to say this every day ?  
 " A. Yes, we never neglect it.  
 " Q. What language do you commonly speak ?  
 " A. Always English.  
 " Q. But you understand the Otabetian ?  
 " A. Yes, but not so well.  
 " Q. Do the old women speak English ?  
 " A. Yes, but not so well as they understand it, their pronunciation is not good.  
 " Q. What countrymen do you call yourselves ?  
 " A. Half English, and half Otaheite.  
 " Q. Who is your King ?  
 " A. Why, King George to be sure.  
 " Q. Have you ever seen a ship before ?  
 " A. Yes, we have seen four from this land, but only one stopped. Mayhew Folgier was the Captain ; I suppose you know him?—No, we do not know him.  
 " Q. How long did he stay ?  
 " A. Two days.  
 " Q. Should you like to go to England ?  
 " A. No ! I cannot, I am married, and have a family." (p. 83—87.)

The subsequent account of the deportment of these Anglo-savages is curious, and it bears on the face of it every mark of probability. Few things can be more interesting than an exhibition of this state of innocent and intelligible simplicity : most of the social virtues were implanted and encouraged among them by the necessities of their situation ; each man was dependent upon his neighbour for some proportion of comfort and happiness ; all were equal in influence and enjoyment—without a wish for, and scarcely a knowledge of, those irksome refinements which grow up in populous communities, and in time, by destroying confidence, charity, and friendship, deprive men by degrees of " all the luxury of doing good." What a theme would this be for an advocate against the degeneracy of civilized man, and in favour of the simplicity of a state of nature ! Our remark would perhaps have been better timed had we postponed it a little, until we arrive at that part of the work before us which speaks of the domestic condition of this anomalous people : we are at present only speaking of their demeanour on board the Briton.

- " The whole of them were inquisitive, and in their questions, as well as answers, betrayed a very great share of natural abilities.  
 " They asked the names of whatever they saw, and the purposes

to which it was applied. This, they would say, was pretty,—that they did not like, and were greatly surprised at our having so many things which they were not possessed of in the island.

“The circumstance of the dog, the things which at each step drew their attention or created their wonder, retarded us on our road to the breakfast table, but arriving there we had a new cause for surprize. The astonishment which before had been so strongly demonstrated in them, was now become conspicuous in us, even to a much greater degree than when they hailed us in our native language; and I must here confess I blushed when I saw nature, in its most simple state, offer that tribute of respect to the Omnipotent Creator, which from an education I did not perform, nor from society had been taught its necessity. 'Ere they began to eat, on their knees, and with hands uplifted, did they implore permission to partake in peace what was set before them; and when they had eaten heartily, resuming their former attitude, offered a fervent prayer of thanksgiving for the indulgence they had just experienced. Our omission of this ceremony did not escape their notice, for Christian asked me whether it was not customary with us also. Here nature was triumphant, for I should do myself an irreparable injustice, did I not with candour acknowledge, I was both embarrassed and wholly at a loss for a sound reply, and evaded this poor fellow's question by drawing his attention to the cow, which was then looking down the hatchway, and as he had never seen any of the species before, it was a source of mirth and gratification to him.

“The hatred of these people to the blacks is strongly rooted, and which doubtless owes its origin to the early quarrels which Christian and his followers had with the Otahetians after their arrival at Pitcairn; to illustrate which I shall here relate an occurrence which took place at breakfast.

“Soon after young Christian had began, a West Indian Black, who was one of the servants, entered the gun-room to attend table as usual. Christian looked at him sternly, rose, asked for his hat, and said, ‘I don't like that black fellow, I must go,’ and it required some little persuasion, 'ere he would again resume his seat. The innocent Quashe was often reminded of the anecdote by his fellow-servants.” (p. 87—89.)

It was unfortunate for Lieutenant Shillibeer that the stay of the ship at Pitcairn's Island was so short; as, in consequence of it, he was unable to go on shore to visit the town built by the islanders: it seems that Sir Thomas Staines, and the captains of two ships in company, only went on shore; why the other officers were prevented we know not; and it must have been a most grievous disappointment to all who possessed the smallest share of curiosity. Our author very feelingly laments this deprivation, which

obliged him to give the rest of his details regarding the settlement from the relations of others. We will extract such portions as are interesting.

" 'After landing,' said my friend, 'and we had ascended a little eminence, we were imperceptibly led through groupes of cocoa-nuts and bread-fruit trees, to a beautiful picturesque little village, formed on an oblong square, with trees of various kinds irregularly interspersed. The houses small, but regular, convenient, and of unequalled cleanliness. The daughter of Adams received us on the hill. She came doubtlessly as a spy, and had we taken men, or even been armed ourselves, would certainly have given her father timely notice to escape, but as we had neither, she waited our arrival, and conducted us to where her father was. She was arrayed in nature's simple garb, and wholly unadorned, but she was beauty's self, and needed not the aid of ornament. She betrayed some surprise—timidity was a prominent feature.

" 'John Adams is a fine looking old man, approaching to sixty years of age. We conversed with him a long time relative to the mutiny of the *Bounty*, and the ultimate fate of Christian. He denied being accessory to, or having the least knowledge of the conspiracy, but he expressed great horror at the conduct of Captain Bligh, not only towards his men, but officers also. I asked him if he had a desire to return to England, and I must confess his replying in the affirmative, caused me great surprise.

" 'He told me he was perfectly aware how deeply he was involved; that by following the fortune of Christian, he had not only sacrificed every claim to his country, but that his life was the necessary forfeiture for such an act, and he supposed would be exacted from him as he ever to return: notwithstanding all these circumstances, nothing would be able to occasion him so much gratification as that of seeing once more, prior to his death, that country which gave him birth, and from which he had been so long estranged.

" 'There was a sincerity in his speech, I can badly describe it—but it had a very powerful influence in persuading me these were his real sentiments. My interest was excited to so great a degree, that I offered him a conveyance for himself, with any of his family who chose to accompany him. He appeared pleased at the proposal, and as no one was then present, he sent for his wife and children. The rest of this little community surrounded the door. He communicated his desire, and solicited their acquiescence. Appalled at a request not less sudden than in opposition to their wishes, they were all at a loss for a reply.' " (p. 91—93.)

The old man is at length prevailed upon to forego his intention of returning to England. Had he accepted Sir T. Staines' offer, Adams might have rendered himself amenable to the laws of his country for the mutiny; but we

can scarcely suppose that, after the lapse of twenty-nine years, (the *Bounty* having been run away with in 1788,) the heavy penalty would have been enforced: indeed, it is questionable whether any witnesses could have been brought forward against him, and his own voluntary confession to the British captains would certainly not have been deemed sufficient to warrant a conviction. We shall not apologize for introducing the particulars given below of the domestic condition and habits of our fellow-subjects of Pitcairn's.

"The young women have invariably beautiful teeth, fine eyes, and open expression of countenances, and looks of such simple innocence, and sweet sensibility, that renders their appearance at once interesting and engaging, and it is pleasing to add, their minds and manners were as pure and innocent, as this impression indicated. No lascivious looks, or any loose, forward manners, which so much distinguish the characters of the females of the other islands,

"The island itself has an exceedingly pretty appearance, and I was informed by Christian, every part was fertile and capable of being cultivated. The coast is every way bound with rocks, inso-much that they are at all times obliged to carry their little boats to the village, but the timber is of so light a nature that one man is adequate to the burden of the largest they have.

"Each family has a separate allotment of land, and each strive to rival the other in their agricultural pursuits, which is chiefly confined to the propagation of the yam, and which they have certainly brought to the finest perfection I ever saw. The bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees, were brought with them in the *Bounty*, and have been since reared with great success. The pigs also came by the same conveyance, as well as goats and poultry: They had no pigeons, and I am sorry to say no one thought of leaving those few we had on board, with them.

"The pigs have got into the woods, and many are now wild. Fish of various sorts are taken here, and in great abundance; the tackling is all of their own manufacturing, and the hooks, although beat out of old iron hoops, not only answer the purpose, but are fairly made.

"Needles they also make from the same materials. Those men who came on board, were finely formed, and of manly features. Their height about five feet ten inches; their hair black and long, generally plaited into a tail. They wore a straw hat, similar to those worn by sailors, with a few feathers stuck into them by way of ornament. On their shoulders was a mantle resembling the Chilinan Poncho, which hung down to the knee, and round the waist a girdle corresponding to that of the Indians at the Marquesas, both of which are produced from the bark of trees growing on the island. They told me they had clothes on shore, but never wore them. I spoke to Christian particularly of Adams, who assured me he was

greatly respected, insomuch that no one acted in opposition to his wishes, and when they should lose him, their regret would be general. The inter-marriages which had taken place among them, have been the occasion of a relationship throughout the colony. There seldom happens to be a quarrel, even of the most trivial nature, and then (using their own term) is nothing more than a word of mouth quarrel, which is always referred to Adams for adjustment." (p. 94—96.)

The voyage to Valparaiso, to which port the Briton now proceeded, occupied thirty days: from thence the author went to Lima, and returned by Juan Fernandez to the port from whence he set out. He gives some long details respecting the mines of Peru, and the places and countries he there visited, but as they do not contain any thing very remarkable, we must omit them on account of the number of extracts we have made from the more curious parts of his work.

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ART. III.—*Outlines of Geology; being the Substance of a Course of Lectures delivered at the Theatre of the Royal Institution, in the Year 1816.* By WILLIAM THOMAS BRANDE, Secretary to the Royal Society, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 144. London, Murray, 1817.

*An Introduction to Geology, illustrative of the General Structure of the Earth; comprising the Elements of the Science, and an Outline of the Geology and Mineral Geography of England.* By ROBERT BAKEWELL. The second edition, considerably enlarged. 8vo. pp. 492. London, Harding.

GEOLOGY, or geognosy, as the terms are applied in the work before us, is principally concerned in illustrating the mode of formation, the structure, and relative position of the different substances that compose the crust of the earth. Formerly these terms were not used as synonymous; and Friburg considered the one as bearing the sort of connection with the other that astrology does with astronomy; but as they are now indifferently employed, they are less used in reference to the primordial state of the globe, than to the collecting and arranging simple facts in order to ascertain the situation and ages of minerals.

Mr. Brande introduces his subject with stating several theories of the earth, commencing with Thomas Burnett, who published in 1680, and closing his first lecture with the system of Hutton, which was illustrated by the elo-



quent and philosophic pen of Playfair. Geological inquiries are not, perhaps, so modern as this instructive writer supposes; the signal changes which have taken place on the surface of the globe, were in remote ages noticed by Xanthus the Lydian, and by him were ascribed to earthquakes and subterraneous conflagration, which, he observed, had varied not only the superficies of the earth, but the bed of the sea. Our countryman Ray revived this opinion in his *Physico-Theological Discourses*, published in 1692; and the scheme of Burnett himself is ascribed to Francesco Patrizio, professor of Ferrara and Rome, who explained his hypothesis in a dialogue entitled, *Il Lambertio*.

A great number of geologists subsequent to the time of Burnett are omitted, as might be expected, and indeed was intended, in the short list supplied by Mr. Brande, especially of foreign geologists. Among these are, Bourguet, who published in 1729; Lazaro Moro, an Italian, who published in 1740; with Scheuchzer, Steno, Hooke, De la Pryme, and others: and the truth is, that whatever may have been the deficiency of writers on this subject in former times, during the last century we have had about fifty projects; so that if the earth itself had undergone as many revolutions as opinion on this subject, we who inhabit it should have been exposed to very considerable danger, if we were not indeed utterly destroyed.

Be the date of these inquiries what it may, they are connected with questions of great interest and importance. A knowledge of our subterranean wealth, says the President of the Board of Agriculture, would be the means of furnishing greater opulence to the country than the acquisition of the mines of Mexico and Peru. Hitherto we have been very imperfectly acquainted with the means which Nature employs to form the soil on which we tread, and who daily converting the various animal and vegetable exuviae, forms a nutritious mould to give existence and support to a new creation. Very scanty is the information we possess of the process of alluvial deposition; of the detritus accumulated at the base of the mountain by the decomposition of the various rocks, or of the process employed to produce petrifications, and the circumstances with which they are attended. These are among the curious and useful elucidations contained in works of this kind; and whatever may be the apparent difficulty in tracing the origin, progress, and result, of such magnificent operations,

it will be found, that by substituting for fanciful conjecture and illusive speculation, the sound principles of logic and induction, much light has been acquired with regard to these extraordinary phenomena.

Of the different theories referred to in the introductory lecture, we shall omit all that is romantic and fanciful, extracting only the explanation given of the theories of Werner and Hutton.

"The first principle of the Wernerian Theory assumes, that our globe was once covered with a sort of chaotic compost, holding either in solution or suspension the various rocks and strata which now present themselves as its exterior crust. From some unexplained cause, this fluid began first to deposit those bodies which it held in chemical solution, and thus a variety of crystallized rocks were formed. In these we find no vegetable or animal remains, nor even any rounded pebbles; but in the strata which lie upon the crystalline, or first deposits, shells and fragments occasionally occur: these, therefore, have been termed *transition strata*; and it is imagined that the peopling of the ocean commenced about this period. The waters upon the earth began now more rapidly to subside, and finely-divided particles, chiefly resulting from disintegration of the first formations, were its chief contents; these were deposited upon the transition rocks chiefly in horizontal layers. They abound in organic remains, and are termed by Werner, *Floetz* or *Secondary rocks*.

It is now conceived that the exposure of the *primitive, transition, and secondary* rocks to the agencies of wind and weather, and to the turbulent state of the remaining ocean, produced inequalities of surface, and that the water retreated into lowlands and vallies, where a further deposition took place, constituting clay, gravel, and other *alluvial* formations.

"There are also certain substances which, instead of being found in regularly alternating layers over the earth, are met with in very limited and occasional patches. Rock-salt, coal, basalt, and some other bodies are of this character, and Werner has called them *subordinate* formations. Lastly, subterraneous fires have sometimes given birth to peculiar and very limited products; and these are called *volcanic* rocks. Such is Werner's account of the production of rocks, which he arranges under the terms *primary, transition, secondary, alluvial, subordinate, and volcanic formations*." (p. 20—22.)

Dr. Hutton, looking at nature, and discovering every thing to be in a condition of progressive decay, attributes to this apparent destruction of the earth's surface the real source of its renovation.

"The lofty mountains, exposed to the action of the varying temperature of the atmosphere, and the waters of the clouds, are by slow degrees suffering constant diminution, their fragments are dislodged, masses are rolled into the valley, or carried by the rushing torrent into rivers, and thence transported to the sea. The lower and softer rocks are undergoing similar, but more rapid destruction. The result of all this must be, the accumulation of much new matter in the ocean, which will be deposited in horizontal layers. Looking at the transition rocks of Werner, he perceives, that though not strictly crystalline, they appear made up of finely-divided matter, more or less indurated, and sometimes very hard in texture, and of a vitreous fracture; and that this hardening is most perceptible when in contact with the primitive or inferior rock, which often pervades them in veins, or appears to have broken up or luxated the superincumbent masses. According, then, to Dr. Hutton, the transition or secondary rocks of Werner were deposited at the bottom of the ocean, in consequence of operations similar to those which are now active, and the primary rocks were formed beneath them by the operation of subterraneous fires; their crystalline texture, their hardness, their shape and fracture, and the alterations they have produced upon their neighbours, are the proofs of the correctness of these views. It is by the action of subterraneous fire, then, that rocks have been elevated, that strata have been hardened, and that those changes have resulted which an examination of the earth's surface unfolds. The production of soils and of alluvial land, is considered as dependent upon causes the same as those referred to in the other theory." (p. 24—26.)

The theory of Werner above referred to, was called the Neptunian, and that of Hutton the Plutonian, he considering fire as instrumental with water in the production of rock—the former consolidating and elevating, the latter collecting and depositing the strata; and as the system of Werner was favoured by the country he particularly examined, so that of Hutton is happily illustrated by many of the phenomena that occur among the mountains of Scotland, the birth-place of its inventor, and the seat of his speculations.

It may be convenient occasionally to explain a few particulars of the nomenclature of geologists, and very few they shall be, for we perfectly agree with Mr. Bakewell and Sir Humphry Davy, that "barricading the avenues to knowledge from general access, by a fortification of hard words and frivolous distinctions," is to disappoint the purpose these means are intended to accomplish. The terms primitive and secondary rocks were introduced into this

branch of science by Lehman, in his *Traité de Physique, D'Histoire Naturelle, &c.* which appeared at Paris in 1753, and they have been since generally adopted, and more extensively by Werner than his precursors. In that treatise, the crust of the earth is described as presenting three distinct series of substances: the first, supposed to be coeval with the world, is called primitive or primary rocks; the secondary are assumed to be of more recent formation, probably from some deluge, or gigantic effort of Nature; and the third class are said to be indebted for their composition to partial or local revolutions, as indicated by their structure and situation. The method adopted in these lectures is in conformity with this arrangement, which, although certainly not the most philosophical, is yet the most perspicuous, and on that account the most useful.—Preparatory to the more particular examination of the subject, the author makes the subsequent remarks on the advantages of geology in mining, farming, and building.

“ We learn that certain rocks are more prolific in mineral treasures than others; that some yield nothing useful; that veins of the metals pursue certain courses; that coal is accompanied by favourable and unfavourable indications. Geology confirms, extends, and applies experience of this sort, upon which the miner's success depends. It enables the farmer to ameliorate his land, by teaching whence to procure mineral manures, and where to look for those associations of strata which are called for in agricultural improvements. The inattention of architects to the plainest truths taught by geology, is a matter of serious regret, as far, at least, as concerns great works of art, intended to endure as monuments of the present age. Nearly all the public edifices of this metropolis are constructed of one of the most perishable kinds of stone the island affords; which is the more reprehensible, as being often brought from the contact of that which is durable, and but a little more difficult of removal from the quarry. The only exception I am aware of, is in the Strand-bridge, where the durability of the material is equivalent to the skill of the architect.” (p. 32—33.)

The illustrations of the science are usually taken in these lectures from the phenomena this island exhibits, and as there are few parts of it which the author has not visited, his remarks may be considered generally as made from personal observation. A section of the South of England will furnish a good view of the phenomena of stratification.

“ It will begin at the Land's-End with primitive rocks; massive and amorphous. Upon this rest several species of transition rocks,

especially slates of different kinds, having various inclinations; and these are succeeded by secondary strata, deviating more and more from the vertical, and acquiring the horizontal position; and ultimately we attain the alluvial matter upon which the metropolis stands. It is principally clay, and has once perhaps formed the mud at the bottom of a salt water lake.

"Proceeding from London northwards, towards the Scotch border, the order of stratification is reversed, and traversing a highly interesting series of secondary rocks, we arrive in Cumberland at some of the primitive series. The whole arrangement is such as to include the highest and oldest rocks upon the west side of England, forming a chain extending from the Land's-End in Cornwall, to Cumberland, and thence to the northern extremity of Scotland. So that the length of Great Britain, and its general shape, appear in a considerable degree dependent upon this chain of mountainous land, and upon two lower ridges, which extend, in one direction from Devonshire, through Dorsetshire, Hampshire, and Sussex, into Kent; and in another, nearly from the same point, to the East of Yorkshire.

"The western ridge is broken in upon in several places by plains and rivers, giving rise to so many chasms in the great chain." (p. 36—37.)

The author having stated the numerous distinctions of the component parts of the primary rocks, as granite, quartz, felspar, mica, &c. submits the following general remarks.

"We have now considered a highly important series of rocks, and have enumerated their characters as insulated individuals. As a class, they present analogies which distinguish them from their superincumbent neighbours, and give them the stamp of a peculiar and distinct formation, either formed before organic beings, or under circumstances which have destroyed such remains.

"In these rocks we seldom observe any regular stratification: they are constituted of amorphous irregular and various masses, and present no appearances of having been deposited from water. They are crystalline aggregates; and they are deeper in their situation than other rocks, which always appear incumbent upon them, and often elevated or heaved, as it were, by their operation.

"They often break through the beds or layers that cover them, and rise to a very great elevation, forming the summits and peaks of the loftiest mountains. In England they are comparatively rare; in Cornwall there is abundance of granite, but it rises to no great height. Granite and its associates are found in Cumberland, but they are sparingly scattered over the county; and the romantic and picturesque aspect of the hills is chiefly derived from other species of rocks. In Wales the primary rocks are uncommon, and I



know of no granite, but there is a portion to be found in the centre of Anglesea, near Gwindy, where its associations will hereafter merit notice.

"In Scotland the districts composed of primitive rocks, and presenting their various aspects, junctions, and transitions, are full of grandeur and interest. Travelling northwards from Edinburgh, we enter upon mica slate at one of the highland passes, and crossing the Grampians, find their principal summits of the same materials. From Loch Tay to Killin, the same rocks continue, with beds of limestone. Ben More is a mica slate rock, of exceeding grandeur; it rises to about four thousand feet above the sea's level, and is thickly intersected with quartz veins. Ben Lawers, to the north of Loch Tay, is of similar composition; it is chiefly gneiss, associated with mica slate and quartz; and the same substances are found at Crag Caillach, and Schehallion, and contribute to the magnificence of the celebrated pass of Killikrankie, between Dunkeld and Blair in Athol." (p. 63—65.)

Mr. Brande introduces his examination of the character of the transition rocks of Werner, and the stratified rocks of Hutton, with remarks on the relative heights of mountains—depriving Chimborazo (Chimborazo) of the station assigned it by earlier geologists, as the most exalted work of Nature on this planet.

"The highest known mountains in the world are those of Thibet, constituting the Himalayan chain. They are alluded to by Colonel Kirkpatrick in his History of Nepaul, and an extended and interesting account of them has been published by Mr. Colebrooke in the Asiatic Researches, Vol. XII.

"Of this chain, the highest peak, covered with eternal snow, is called Dwawala-giri, or White mountain; it is the Mont Blanc of the Indian Alps, and rises to the astonishing altitude of twenty-six thousand four hundred and sixty-two feet above the level of the plains of Gorak'pûr; or upon the lowest computation, twenty-six thousand eight hundred and sixty-two feet above the level of the ocean. This is about six thousand feet higher than Chimborazo, eleven thousand feet higher than Mont Blanc, and twenty-two thousand feet higher than the most elevated peak of the British dominions, which indeed makes Ben Nevis seem very insignificant, though its summit is close upon the verge of perpetual snow in this climate. There can be no doubt that the lofty peaks of the Thibet chain are granite, though we learn that the hills which border them are secondary, and contain remains of spiral shells, in which the untutored mind of the Hindu discerns traces of Vishnu, his deity. The elevation of secondary rocks will in great measure depend upon that of the primary materials beneath them; thus in the Andes they attain twelve thousand feet; in the Alps seven thou-

sand ; and in this country not more than three thousand five hundred." (p. 77—78.)

There is some difference in the computation as to these mountains, in the two authors whose works are the subject of our present inquiry. Mr. Brande's lowest elevation of the Indian Alps is 26,862 feet above the level of the ocean, whereas Mr. Bakewell states, that the mountains of Tibet are considered to rise only 25,000 feet ; Mr. Brande also raises these latter 6,000 feet above Chimborazo, whereas this mountain of Quito, according to Mr. Bakewell, is 22,700 feet, or only 4,162 feet below the former.

In regard to the formation of secondary rocks, the Wernerian and Huttonian schemes do not very materially disagree, as they both concur in their being depositions from water. The discoveries of Sir H. Davy have furnished unexpected evidence in reconciling the doctrines of the latter ; and it is to the praise of this theory, that difficulties, the inventor could not remove, have been overcome by the progress of knowledge, and the advances of experimental research.

The transition rocks, or those secondary and stratified masses which are immediately incumbent upon the unstratified primitive rocks, are said to be derived from the destruction of a former order of things ; to have been delivered into the ocean by the rivers ; and having covered the bottom of the sea, to have been hardened, elevated, and traversed, by the irruption of granitic, and other substances belonging to that class, from the bowels of the earth.

In the oldest secondary rocks, fragments are often found and rounded pebbles, indicating their origin from former rocks. They also contain the remains of shells, coral, and fish, all of marine origin ; and not unfrequently are discovered traces of animals which are now extinct. In the newer rocks of that class we have the relics of quadrupeds at this time not known ; and following the deposition of strata, we find lizards, crocodiles, elephants, deer, and other animals. Sometimes whole districts contain marine and land animals in this state, in alternate layers.

This part of geology presents several interesting topics to our consideration. It instructs us, that whole races of animals have been swept from the earth's surface ; that not only particular species, but entire genera, have become extinct ; that oviparous quadrupeds, with the finny tribe, began to exist at the commencement of the secondary for-

mations; that mammiferous sea animals are more ancient than those of the land; that a few of those now known existed towards the close of the secondary formation; and that by far the greater number are of a later period, and probably contemporary with the present order of the earth's surface. Lastly, we learn the instructive fact, as to the recent date of human beings, since no fossil human remains have yet been discovered.\*

The secondary rocks are the chief repositories of metallic substances, and by their decomposition and decay they furnish the principal materials of the soil in which the vegetable has its habitation, and consequently upon which the animal depends for its subsistence.

Of the component parts of these secondary rocks we may notice clay-slate as an abundant material, and from this is formed roofings, writing-slates, slate-pencils, &c. and where it much prevails, it is employed for pavements, walls, and ornamental tablets. The slate country of England is of great extent: in Cornwall it is immediately incumbent upon granite, and the slaty districts form very beautiful scenery upon many parts of the coast. In Wales it is of singular interest and magnificence, as will be acknowledged by those who have visited the chain of heights comprehending Snowden, Plymlimon, and Cader-Idris. This last

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\* "The imperfect skeleton of a woman, imbedded in a kind of calcareous sandstone, recently brought from Guadaloupe, and exhibited in the British Museum, may appear to invalidate what was asserted in the first edition of this work, that no instances have been known of human bones being found in regular stratified rocks, nor even in undisturbed alluvial ground, where the remains of extinct species of quadrupeds are not unfrequently met with. Due attention to all the circumstances will reconcile that assertion with the present fact. The skeleton from Guadaloupe is described as having been found on the shore below the high-water mark, among calcareous rocks formed of madrepores, and not far from the volcano called the Souffriere. The bones are not petrified, but preserve the usual constituents of fresh bone, and were rather soft when first exposed to the air. Specimens of the stone which I have in my possession, that were chipped from the same block, present, when examined with a lens, the appearance of smooth grains aggregated and united without any visible cement. Now it is well known, that on the shores of Sicily, and other parts of the world, heaps of loose sand become consolidated in a few years. It cannot, therefore, excite surprise, that in a volcanic island like Guadaloupe, subject to violent convulsions from earthquakes and impetuous hurricanes, human bodies should occasionally be discovered, that have been enveloped in driving sands, which have subsequently become indurated. The situation of this skeleton near the sea-shore, the state of the bones, and the nature of the stone in which they are imbedded, take away the probability of their high antiquity." (*Bakewell*, p. 20—22.)

elevation, which is one of the loftiest in Merionethshire, has near its summit a large conical cavity, resembling a volcanic crater. The north side of the mountain is covered with scattered basaltic columns, composed of porphyritic green stone.

" These mountains attain an elevation of between three and four thousand feet, their summits are jagged and irregular, their declivities steep and barren, and the neighbouring passes and vallies have all the peculiarities that slate confers ; among them, the dell of Aberglaslyn, viewed from the bridge which unites Merionethshire to the county of Caernarvon, presents a grand and awful feature. The rocks are lofty, lonesome, and black ; their sides exhibit terrific and inaccessible precipices ; or where the slopes are more gentle, they are covered with the sharp angular fragments, which time and the elements have dislodged from above.

" Advancing northwards, the mountain chain is broken by the lowlands of Lancashire ; but in Westmoreland and Cumberland slate again presents itself, plentifully accompanied by grauwacke, which contributes to the enchanting scenery of the lakes. As black peaks and precipices strewed with slippery and cutting fragments mark the mountains of common slate, so have the grauwacke rocks peculiarities by which they are recognized, and which are no where more evident than in the rounded summits that imbosom Derwent water. In their forms, tints, and outlines there is something indiscribly delightful, and they present that rare union of the sublime and beautiful of which no better idea can be formed, than that suggested by Mr. Burke's comparison:—' Sublime objects are vast in their dimensions ; beautiful ones comparatively small ; beauty should be smooth and polished ; the great, rugged and negligent ; beauty should shun the right line, yet deviate from it insensibly ; the great, in many cases, loves the right line, and when it deviates it often makes a strong deviation ; beauty should not be obscure ; the great ought to be dark and gloomy ; beauty should be light and delicate ; the great ought to be solid and even massive.' These qualities of that which is sublime, well apply to the rocks I have before described, and when blended with the parallel definition of the beautiful, furnish a just notion of the aspect of those now under consideration." (p. 87—89.)

The scenery presented by mountain limestone is also extremely beautiful, and to it we are indebted for the delicious views of Matlock and its vicinity, with the caves of Castleton Pont-Neath.—Vaughn, in Glamorganshire, says our author, is full of its beauties, and the panorama of Swansea bay, furnishes a pleasing characteristic, and perhaps unrivalled prospects of these rocks.

"Mountain limestone is an excellent material for building, and many of its varieties are sufficiently indurated to receive a good polish, and are thus employed for ornamental purposes, being cut into vases, chimney-pieces, and the like. Where they abound in corals, and other organic remains, these frequently add to their beauty." (p. 96.)

The next rock that occurs is the red sandstone, which is seen in some parts of Britain in great perfection. At Ilfracombe, the red sandstone of the Somersetshire coast is upon slate.

"Hawthornden near Edinburgh shews the characteristic features of the rock; and the ancient castle, with its dungeons and vaults, is constructed of this material. Ridges of red sandstone, containing mica and fragments, sometimes accompany primary rocks, of which a very singular instance occurs upon the banks of Loch Beaully, near Inverness; a high range of granite is here bordered by a breccia, very like that of the bed of the Fyers; and a low ridge of red sandstone, of which the valley is also composed, accompanies the series, and seems the detritus of the more ancient and lofty formations." (p. 99.)

"In the county of Cheshire the red sandstone contains immense beds of *common salt*, most abundant in the valley of the Weaver; and near Middlewich, Northwich, and Nantwich, it is accompanied by gypsum. The first stratum was discovered about 150 years ago, in searching for coal." (p. 101—102.)

Coal is the most important product of these middle strata. A coal field, or district, sometimes called a coal basin, is usually a concavity varying greatly in extent, but sometimes reaching for many miles, and having numerous strata, or seams of coal of different thicknesses. It alternates, as the geologists express themselves, with sandstone and clays, and soft slate or shale, containing the impressions of vegetables, and sometimes the remains of fresh-water shell fish.

"There are several varieties of coal, but as far as their economical applications are concerned, they may principally be reduced to two. The coals of Lancashire, Scotland, and most of those raised upon the west of England, burn quickly and brilliantly into a light ash: while the coal of Northumberland and Durham, becomes soft and puffy, spouts out bright jets of flame, requires poking to continue in combustion, and produces bulky cinders, which if urged in a violent fire, or mixed with fresh coals, run into slugs and clinkers." (p. 104.)

"The greater number of geologists are now unanimous as to the vegetable origin of coal; and indeed its composition, the abundance



of vegetable bodies with which it is often associated, and the gradual transitions of wood into coal discoverable in many parts of the world, may be considered as satisfactory evidence upon this subject; but how it has been formed, is another and more intricate question." (p. 105.)

We have not yet noticed the Bath stone receiving its name from its abundant occurrence in the vicinity of the city of Bath, or freestone, of which Portland stone is a variety. There occur also various sandstones, with veins of chert and oxide of iron, and lastly we reach chalk and superincumbent alluvial matters.

"The chalk itself presents the geologist with much matter of speculation. In England it is a very abundant formation; and the round backed hills covered with verdure, which mark the eastern counties, are very characteristic of it. Salisbury Plain and Marlborough Downs form a centre whence the chalk emanates in a north-eastern direction, through the counties of Buckingham, Bedford, and Cambridge, and terminate on the Norfolk coast. In an easterly direction it traverses Hampshire, Surry and Kent, and terminates at Dover; and another arm passing through Sussex east-south-east, forms the South Downs, and the lofty promontory of Beachy Head. Parallel ridges of sandstone generally accompany the chalk, and in Wiltshire, Berkshire, and some other counties, large blocks of granular siliceous sandstone, lie scattered upon its surface: of these the celebrated druidical relics called Stonehenge, appear to have been constructed, with the exception of one of the blocks, which is of greenstone. The lower beds of chalk are generally argillaceous, or marly, and contain no flints and few organic remains. The upper beds abound in fossil relics of the kinds before alluded to, and in flints sometimes regularly arranged in distinct nodules, at other times remarkably intersecting the chalk in thin seams. The formation of flint has been much speculated upon, but no plausible theory has yet been adduced in regard to it.

"In the south of England the chalk is covered with gravel and clay, the history of which is extremely curious, on account of the fossils which they contain, and the evidence they afford of repeated inundations of salt and fresh water upon the same spot. There are two celebrated concavities filled with such materials, which have been called the London and the Isle of Wight basins. The former is bounded by the chalk hills proceeding from Wiltshire to the south of the Kentish coast in one direction, and to the northern point of the Norfolk coast in another; and it is open to the ocean upon the Essex, Suffolk, and Norfolk coasts, which shew sections of its contents.

"The numerous wells which have been dug in the neighbourhood of London, and the canals, and other excavations and public

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works which have been carried on, have lately made us acquainted with many curious facts respecting the contents of this basin. Several specimens of the fossils found in it are preserved in the geological collection of the Institution; and in the descriptive Catalogue, page 42, will be found some further observations respecting it." (p. 112—114.)

No mention has yet been made of a singular and important series of rocks called greenstone, basalt, amygdaloid and toadstone. The greenstone is seen in large blocks and masses of a very irregular appearance at the Lizard Point, also on the north side of the Welch mountains, a chain of greenstone follows the slate. The most remarkable phenomenon connected with basalt, is its occasional columnous structure. Upon this subject, Mr. Brande observes, that Sir James Hall's experiments are of extreme interest, and when conjoined with those of Mr. Watt, produce irresistible evidence in favour of the igneous origin of basalt. Of the columnar description, the British dominions present the noblest specimens in the known world.

The general purpose of these lectures, is to explain the succession of strata, to describe the materials of which they are constituted, and to point out their aspects, gradations, and peculiarities, when existing as mountain masses. The author has likewise put his reader in possession of the leading facts which belong to the theories of the earth, to show, as he expresses himself, in what they excel, and where they are deficient, and to pursue the arguments of the inventors, as far as these have led to useful investigation, or have disclosed new views of the economy of nature. He has not given any decided opinion on the merits of the Neptunian system of Werner, or the Plutonian system of Hutton; but the latter he considers as giving the most plausible explanation of the phenomena of nature, as least at variance with facts, as least hypothetical, and as the best entitled to the appellation of a theory of the earth; but he has suppressed nothing favourable to the opposite scheme, which he proposes not to espouse. It appears from the view here taken, that the terrestrial changes which are uninterruptedly proceeding either more gradually or rapidly, are productive of the most beneficial effects, and that by operations apparently destructive, nature converts age and infirmity into youth and vigour. The discoveries of science have taught us, that the Divine Author of the universe has not given laws which, like the institutions of men, involve in themselves the elements of their own extinction, but has

preserved in his works a renovating principle of perfection indestructible, and youth eternal.

But it is high time that we should notice more immediately the work of Mr. Bakewell, which stands in the title to this article. It is not in the form of lectures, as the work of Mr. Brande, but it is in the shape of a regular didactic treatise, the materials of which are supplied, however, from lectures which the scientific author has been in the habit of delivering with great ability, and we dare say, with proportionate improvement, both in the capital and elsewhere. Although we have no present acquaintance with this gentleman, as long as five-and-twenty years since, we had the pleasure of accompanying him in some of his rambles among the mountains of Westmoreland and Cumberland, which we believe was the first occasion on which he had visited those countries, and when he probably received those powerful impressions that subsequently gave the direction to his studies to which this production is to be ascribed.

It is not an unusual situation when two works on the same subject are to be reviewed, and the one by accident rather than design, acquires the precedence, that we extend our observations upon it beyond its due limits; and such is the condition in which we are placed on the present occasion, so that we shall be under the necessity of abridging the remarks we have to offer on Mr. Bakewell's introduction to Geology. We have said it is a regular didactic work, and it has not only the advantage of verbal explanations, but it has seven plates very adroitly contrived to render the subject intelligible to the student. Notwithstanding the modest elementary title it bears, yet, as it appears to us, it contains a general view of nearly all that is known of the theory, and much that is connected with the practice of geological science.

We have, in the course of the strictures we have made on Mr. Brande's work, and the interesting extracts we have supplied from it, adverted to the subterranean phenomena of this country; but we have a more full account of it from Mr. Bakewell, who has undertaken to supply in a distinct chapter, (XIV.) an outline of the geology of England. This section we should have been disposed to have given in his own words were it not on account of its length, and its reference to a map which it is not within the scheme of a review to provide. It is, however, too curious and instructive to be wholly omitted; and we will endeavour,

therefore, to make it as correctly understood as we can consistently with brevity, and with the privation of that technical assistance to which we have referred.

The author introduces this delineation by stating—

“ The length of England is determined by different groups of hills and mountains, which viewed on a grand scale may be considered as forming one chain extending along the western side of England and Wales, from Cornwall to Cumberland, and from thence to the northern extremity of Scotland. All the highest mountains in Great Britain are situated in this chain. The breadth of our island in the southern and eastern parts is determined by two lower ranges of hills: one of these extends from Dorsetshire to Kent; the other stretches in a waving line from the isle of Portland to the Wolds in the east riding of Yorkshire.

“ The western chain of mountains is broken, by the intervention of the Bristol channel and the low grounds of Lancashire and Cheshire, into three parts or ranges. For the sake of distinction they may be denominated the Northern, the Cambrian, and the Devonian range. Considered as parts of one chain, they constitute the alpine district of England.” (p. 338—339.)

The line of calcareous hills extends from the west of Dorsetshire to near Scarborough; it then passes on the western side of the counties of Wilts and Oxford, proceeds through Northamptonshire, Leicestershire and Nottinghamshire, and the East Riding of Yorkshire. The country east of this line may be considered as forming the low district of England, and that west, between this line and the Alpine elevations may be denominated the middle district. The geological characters of these situations are explained by the author, commencing from the eastern coast of England.

“ The low district is particularly distinguished by the absence of any regular beds of coal or metallic veins. It is principally composed of chalk and thick beds of sand and clay, with roestone, calcareous sandstone, and earthy limestone, which were described in the ninth chapter. The highest hills do not rise more than six or seven hundred feet above the level of the sea, except in a few instances. Chalk is the prevailing rock of this district: it has been described as consisting of two distinct formations, distinguished by the lowermost being without flints. Chalk rises to the surface in the southern counties from Dorsetshire to Kent, and in the midland counties of Wiltshire, Berkshire, Hertfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Essex, Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Lincolnshire, and the East Riding of Yorkshire. In various parts of the low district the chalk is covered by thick beds of clay, particularly by a remarkably thick stratum,

which has been called the London clay, because it extends over the vale of Thames in the vicinity of London.

“The London clay is in some situations five hundred feet in thickness, and is distinguished by the variety of the organic remains which it contains, and by large nodules of imperfect ironstone formed into septaria, or cells, by veins of calcareous spar. These are the balls from which Parker's Roman cement is made by burning. It is this clay which was cut through in forming the archway at Highgate. In the calcareous loam and marle over the London clay, are found the bones of the elephant, the rhinoceros, the hippopotamus, the tapir, and the elk. They generally occur in low situations. At Brentford a vast collection of these bones were recently found in the grounds of Mr. Trimmer. About half a century since, a large trunk of an elephant was discovered in sinking a well, on the very spot where the present volume was printed, near St. Andrew's Church, Holborn. At Hampstead and Bagshot this clay is discovered with sand and gravel. This very thick bed of clay appears to have been deposited in extensive lakes or basins formed in chalk. These lakes probably contained salt water, as the organic remains are analogous to the marine shells of tropical climates, but the existence of wood and vegetable products also in this stratum indicates that dry land existed in its vicinity.” (p. 340—342.)

Chalk appears above the surface in various situations in the south, from Dorsetshire to Kent, and in the midland counties of Wilts, Berks, Hertford, Buckingham, Essex, Cambridge, Norfolk, Lincoln, and the East Riding of York. Chalk is below the surface in Huntingdonshire and Rutlandshire. The strata which lie under chalk, and may be considered as part of the same series, rise to the surface as we approach the coal districts.

“The depth of the whole calcareous strata, from the upper chalk to coal strata, is not much more than twice the depth of some mines in England; and were we to commence operations where the chalk terminates in Bedfordshire, we should save the expense of sinking through one thousand feet or more of chalk and clay, which form the substrata near London. Where chalk terminates, and the subjacent sand rises from under it, as at Woburn sands, the depth of the argillaceous strata containing coal, is not greater than some of the present northern mines, if the strata have the same thickness in that country as in Dorsetshire and Somersetshire. Having arrived at regular argillaceous coal strata, how much deeper we must sink to gain the first bed of workable coal, could only be ascertained by trial: it probably would not exceed forty or fifty yards. I am, however, inclined to believe that the lower secondary strata do not extend to any considerable distance beyond their known limits, and that calcareous strata near the coast lie on primary or transition



rocks, without the intervention of coal strata. The determination of this question will be a subject of the highest national importance in the course of a very few centuries, when the coal fields which supply the metropolis and southern counties are worked out. Our prosperity and greatness as a manufacturing nation will depend on the result of this inquiry." (p. 350—351.)

The middle district, consisting of argillaceous and siliceous sandstone and shale, is bounded on the east by the calcareous range of hills, extending from Dorsetshire to Yorkshire. The western boundary from Northumberland to the county of Derby, is formed by the metalliferous limestone mountains of the northern Alpine district, or otherwise, by mountains of millstone grit, or by thick beds of shale, which rest upon limestone. The line is, on Mr. Bakewell's map, continued into Somersetshire, in order to shew that no metallic veins are found east of it, in any part of England.

The secondary strata of the middle district reach the Irish sea on the coast of Lancashire, or are bounded by the Alpine districts of Wales and Devonshire.

"None of the hills in the middle district rise higher than fourteen hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea. The general elevation of the level country in the central parts of England may be determined by that of the canals. The Ashby de la Zouch canal, in its course to Oxford, unites with several others, along which a boat may pass seventy miles equidistant from the eastern and western sea (without the interruption of a single lock) at the level of two hundred and seventy-eight feet above the high-water mark at Gainsborough." (p. 356.)

"The principal coal fields in the northern part of the middle district are in the counties of Northumberland and Durham, the West Riding of Yorkshire and Derbyshire. Coal strata terminate a few miles north-east of Derby, but appear again south of the Trent round Ashby de la Zouch. They are cut off to the south-east by the hills of Cornwood forest; and at the south-west they are covered by a thick bed of coarse breccia and gravel, which separates them from the coal fields at Polesworth and Bedworth, in Warwickshire." (p. 361.)

"The most valuable mineral products of the middle districts are coal, ironstone, and rock salt, described in the sixth chapter." (p. 370.)

An assemblage of lofty mountains passing along the western side of the island, constitutes the Alpine district of England and Wales. These mountains are broken into

three ranges by the intervention of the Bristol channel, and the plains of Lancashire and Cheshire.

The northern range enters Cumberland from Scotland, and passing through that Country and Westmoreland, branches into Northumberland and Durham; it is next continued along the western side of Yorkshire with the north west part of Derbyshire, and from thence into the county of Stafford.

The rocks of Derbyshire, which form the southern part of the northern range of the Alpine county, consist of limestone and basaltic amygdaloid. The series of the coal strata and metalliferous limestone in the same county, appears to be one thousand three hundred yards, through which we must pass to the lowest limestone which is probably incumbent on slate. The beds of basaltic amygdaloid do not extend beyond the Peak of Derbyshire; and the mountain limestone of that district appears to terminate near the south side of the country, as it approaches the hills of Charnwood Forest in Leicestershire. These hills represent in miniature the mountains of North Wales, and those in the vicinity of the Lakes.

On the western side of England, as we approach the alpine districts, we occasionally meet with rocks of a similar class to those in Wales, but surrounded by the secondary strata of the middle district. Of these, the Malvern Hills on the borders of Herefordshire, and the Wrekin and Caradoc Hills in Shropshire, are the most considerable.

The loftiest mountains of the Cambrian range extend through Caernarvonshire and Merionethshire: they decline in height as they pass through Cardiganshire and South Wales, and dip under the coal-strata on the borders of the Bristol Channel.

"The Devonian range spreads through part of Somersetshire, passing through Devonshire and Cornwall, and terminates at the Lizard Point and the Land's-End. Similar rocks make their appearance in the Scilly Islands, in the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney, and on the opposite coasts of France. The highest part of this range is formed by the mountains of Dartmoor in Devonshire, which is stated at fifteen hundred feet above the level of the sea; but few of the mountains in Cornwall have more than half that elevation. The strata of the middle district rise at an elevated angle as they approach the granite rocks of this range. Metalliferous limestone and slate, or killas, form the western boundary of the coal district in Somersetshire, and range along that county into Devonshire and Cornwall." (p. 403—404.)

We shall only add, that a chain of granite mountains extends from Dartmoor in Devonshire to the extremity of Cornwall.

In our observations on this new edition, we have, from necessity, on account of the limits to which we are prescribed, omitted many interesting particulars which have been added with regard to the outline of English geology; and we have perhaps still more reluctantly excluded some opinions here subjoined, respecting the progress of rock-formations, inserted in order to vindicate the science, and to shew that various apparently contradictory or anomalous facts are referable to one general cause, and that several of the doubts under which the subject has hitherto laboured, admit of a satisfactory explanation.

It is hinted in the introductory paragraph of the preface to this second edition, that the literary Journals and Reviews had been chargeable with some neglect towards the author, in not noticing his work on its appearance. For ourselves, we can only say, that from some of those accidents which too frequently occur in the course of our critical labours to excite surprise, this ingenious work did not reach our hands until late in the present month, and to this cause alone is to be ascribed the delay of our attention to it. We admit that it deserves the comments of our brethren, and we are confident that it will not hereafter be disregarded.

ART. IV.—*A most Solemn and Important Epistle to the Emperor of China, on his uncourtly and impolitic Behaviour to the Sublime Ambassadors of Great Britain. By Dr. JOHN WOLCOT, (olim PETER PINDAR, Esq.)* 4to. pp. 19. London, Walker and Edwards, 1817.

AFTER some years of silence, attributed to various causes—exhaustion, idleness, or a pension—Dr. Wolcot again comes forward as a candidate for a renewal of the applauses which, at one time, he monopolized in politico-humorous effusions: during this cessation, several thorough-bred Grub-street scribblers assumed his pseudo-nome, and thus for a moment attracted attention, which their dull absurdities would otherwise have failed to excite: without this assumption, approaching near the confines of fraud and imposture, their productions would have dropped from the press, shapeless abortions, disgusting from their grossness,

and odious from their deformity. It is not, therefore, to be wondered that Dr. Wolcot should now have forsaken his old title of Peter Pindar, Esq. and re-appear in *propria personâ*.

We cannot say that he has chosen the best subject, or has executed it in the best manner: Racine says,—*“le peuple ne met guère de différence entre ce qui est à mille ans de lui, et ce qui en est à mille lieues,”*—but the topics formerly chosen by Dr. Wolcot were generally immediate, both as to place and time. Now, though the disappointment of the late embassy to China is a recent event, it has happened at the distance of six thousand miles, which, according to the ratio of the French tragedian, is the same as two thousand years ago; so that, at least, one source of interest is wanting, independently of the comparatively little curiosity ever excited by such subjects with the great mass of persons who were accustomed to read with aching sides the laughable pieces of Peter Pindar, Esq.—the astonishment of a certain illustrious personage how apples could possibly get into dumplings, or his wonder at learning that beer was made from malt, were much more curious and edifying, particularly to those who delighted in court scandal, and in that species of ridicule which brought the great upon a level with the small. When we say that the epistle before us is not executed in the best manner, we mean, of course, the best manner of an author who formerly possessed such unrivalled felicity in the department to which the greater portion of his works belong. Without further preface, we shall make a few extracts of what we think are the best parts of this poem. It begins with the following stanzas:—

“Descendant of the Great Kien Long,  
Immortal for his Lyric song,  
The Peter Pindar of the *China* Bards;  
Why Amherst so disgrace, and Staunton,  
Like fools dismissing them to Canton?  
How very badly thou hast play'd thy cards!

“Nine times knock heads!—a sad prostration!—  
Degraded, lo! the British Nation,  
Had Amherst yielded to thy proud commands:—  
To Kings tho' Britons deign to truckle,  
Once—and once only—down they knuckle,  
Whene'er indulg'd at Levees to *kiss hands*.

“Inform me what their crying sin,  
That thou shouldst banish them Pekin?—

For mercy's sake, I hope thou didst not strip 'em,  
 Expose them to a grinning mob—  
 (For such had been a horrid job)—  
 And for its merriment like culprits whip 'em!" (p. 5—6.)

Whether Dr. Wolcot had, or had not, a pension, (like some other poets whom Government has thought fit to buy over to the side of royalty,) we cannot determine; but, judging from the performance in our hands, we should say that the probability is against the supposition; at all events, if he ever received it, it is now in great danger of being discontinued, for he has ventured to laugh at the Prince Regent and his predilection for Chinese monstrosities: it is true that this is done but sparingly—the lash of satire is not inflicted with the writer's accustomed severity, and he rather chooses to libel the national taste, than too directly to attack that of his Royal Highness: "like will to like," is a proverb almost as old as the Chinese make the world, and whether his Royal Highness have been caught by any secret sympathy for a *joss* or *hippopotamus*, we know not. Dr. Wolcot in these terms refers to the growing partiality for Chinese rarities.

" Know, we were growing all *Chinese*—  
 Nought but the Eastern style could please;  
 Witness the glittering gold Pavilion rooms;  
 Where (for the noses of the Great,  
 His Highness may vouchsafe to treat)  
 Snakes of a size enormous puff perfumes.

" Each animal in Noah's Ark  
 Had fill'd our fam'd Saint James's Park;  
 From trees huge monkeys by their tails would spring  
 Cats play their gambols—parrots squall—  
 Toads, frogs, and snakes, and lizards crawl,  
 To rival the rich scenes of *Ying-ming*!

" Tow'r'd had Pagodas to the sky,  
 Of tuneful bells a vast supply  
 Had pour'd their tinkling tones from glades to glades;  
 Our rivers had been fill'd with junks,  
 Our groves with Drury's playful punks,  
 Inviting shepherds to their secret shades.

" That Man of merit, Master Nash,  
 Who *never* deals in gaudy trash—  
 Tho' Rome and Athens at his taste may grin—  
 Who, for his Oriental style,  
 Has gain'd his Prince's gracious smile,  
 Had swell'd from Carlton-House a Mandarin!



" A sparkling pair of coal-black eyes,  
Or brilliant blue of goodly size,  
Had lost dominion—led no more the fashion ;—  
But eyes that seem the light to shun,  
Just like a cat's before the Sun,  
With peeping ray had wak'd the tender passion.

" The *Roman* nose, a comely feature,  
And celebrated work of Nature,  
Had by a *snub* been robb'd of just renown ;  
The cheek with ruddy health that glows,  
Whose blushes emulate the rose,  
Had mourn'd the triumph of a *dirty brown*." (p. 7—9.)

All these delectable changes in favour of pristine barbarism, he says are unfortunately put a stop to, by the disgust occasioned by the late affront to Lord Amherst and his suite: but for this circumstance, he might have added, that we perhaps should have arrived in time at the worship of the Chinese gods, Allhog and Gret-foo, some of our statesmen having already begun to pay their adoration to unweildy idols. Dr. Wolcot is in a great rage against the Emperor of China for his haughty demeanour to, and dismissal of, the British ambassador, and threatens summary vengeance—*facit indignatio versus* is our author's motto. He concludes his expostulatory and warning epistle with the following stanzas :—

" Pall-Mall will howl, *poor* Windsor mourn,  
Dreaming of Presents in return,  
Loading th' Alceste as deep as she could swim ;  
So cramm'd with treasures of the East,  
From stem to stern with bag and chest,  
The straddling Tars could scarcely wag a limb.

" Thou never didst vouchsafe, perhaps,  
To cast thine eye sublime on Maps ;  
And therefore, fancying thyself all-mighty,  
Has treated us with pompous scorn—  
Beneath thy notice—beggars born—  
No better than the folks of *Otaheite* !

" Know, should Old England's Genius frown,  
Her thunder soon would shake thy crown,  
Reduce thee from an eagle to a wren ;  
Thine high Imperial pride to gall,  
Force thee to leap the *Chinese* wall,  
To feed on horse with *Tartar* tribes again.

" Insulted by a *Chinese* crew,  
Thou knowest what *one* ship dar'd do,  
Which, blazing, seem'd to emulate Algiers ;  
Which, for Old England's glory fir'd,  
Blew, with a patriot rage inspir'd,  
Walls, guns, and lanterns, all about their ears.\*

" Reflect, what Britons can perform ;  
Of France who fac'd the hostile storm,  
(France that on Realms had fix'd her tyger pats) ;  
Then chain'd, his ruthless rage to mock,  
Napoleon to a barren Rock—  
By all deserted but his neighbours' rats.

" 'Tis now full time to close th' Epistle ;  
Thy pride may bid the Bard go whistle,  
Though thank'd by Monarchs for his *flattering* lays :  
Kings are ambitious of my song ;  
But mark, Successor of Kien Long,  
First mend *thy* manners, ere thou gain'st *my* praise.

" *Moral Reflection on the foregoing Epistle.*

" It is a very easy thing  
Indeed, to make a man a *King* :  
But, since the reign of Kings began,  
How hard to make a *King* a *man*!" (p. 16—19.)

We do not understand the precise application of the last four lines: there is certainly a misnomer somewhere, for the Emperor of China is not a king—the cap would no doubt fit many crowned heads of Europe—but if Dr. Wolcot intended a sly hit at a particular *locum tenens*, he is still guilty of a mistake in the title.

It should seem, from a paragraph at the end of the piece, that a Lyric Epistle to Lord Amherst and Sir G. Staunton, from the same pen, is about to be published: Dr. Wolcot is now a very old man, but it seems "even in our ashes live their wonted fires."

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\* " In allusion to the gallant exploit of the *Alceste* frigate, Captain Maxwell, against the *Chinese* batteries before Canton."

ART. V.—*The History of the University of Edinburgh; chiefly compiled from original papers and records never before published.* By ALEX. BOWER, Author of the "*Life of Luther*. 2 vols. 8vo. Edinburgh, Oliphant and Co.; London, Murray, 1817.

THE author of the present work has on more than one occasion evinced his attachment to literary history, and especially to that of his native country. In 1804, he published an account of the life of Dr. Beattie, introducing into it a sketch of the literature of Scotland during the last century. He subsequently gave to the world the particulars of the state of Scotland in the seventeenth century; and when he was engaged in writing the life of Luther, noticed in the title-page, he was led to the investigation of many minute facts respecting the revival of letters in Europe.

The work to which the attention of the reader is now drawn, brings down the history of the University of Edinburgh to the close of the year 1759, which, it is said, is as late as the limits the author prescribed to himself allowed, consistently with his desire to do justice to the subject. On the situation of the University at the period of its greatest improvement, during the reign of his present Majesty, we shall expect from our author the full details at a future period, as he informs us that he is possessed of ample and interesting materials for this part of the history, which he is prepared to proceed with, should the opinion of the public be favourable to the portion that is already executed.

Mr. Bower having stated the circumstances that impeded the design, observes, that at length, in the year 1582, the charter of the University of Edinburgh was obtained, when James held his court at Sterling. On this authority was confirmed all that his mother had granted to "the foundation of the ministry and hospitality of Edinburgh," and besides enumerating what was conceded, the application is minutely specified; and a more ample charter for the erection of such an establishment could not easily be contrived.\*

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\* "These are the words of Mary's charter: 'Post nostram perfectam ætatem, cum avasamento Dominorum Secreti Concilii nostri, dedimus, concessimus, disposuimus, ac pro nobis et successoribus nostris pro perpetuo confirmamus, prædictis nostris Præposito, Ballivis, Consulibus, et communitati dicti nostri burgi de Edinburgh, et ipsorum successoribus in perpetuum, omnes et singulas terras, tenementa, domos, ædificia, ecclesias,

The suitable powers being thus obtained, the plan was proceeded on with such great alacrity, that a class-room was ready to be opened for students in six months. A check was given to the ardour with which the work was undertaken, from the want of money, in June 1583; but on the 11th of October following it was publicly announced, "that students desirous of instruction should give up their names to a bailie, who shall take order for their instruction." So poor was the University at its commencement, that it could afford no indulgence whatever to the pupils, excepting that perhaps they paid no fees nor honoraries to the regent. The city of Edinburgh had with considerable difficulty erected chambers for the accommodation of the students, but those who occupied them were required to defray the rent.

Robert Rollock, the first teacher, was also the first principal and professor of divinity, and the first rector of the University. He was a man of very singular endowments, and his reputation had never been exceeded by any instructor in the Scottish establishments. The curriculum, or course of study, occupied four years; and it was then the practice for the same instructor to conduct the philosophical studies of the same set of students through the whole of that term.

"Mr. Rollock's fame had gone before him; and the report, that so celebrated a master was to begin a course of philosophy in the newly founded university of Edinburgh, operated as a charm, and induced a great number of students to repair thither to profit by his instructions. The impulse which thus was given to the youth of Scotland seems to have been very great indeed. For, according to

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capellas, hortos, pomæria, croftas, annuos redditus, fructus, devoria, proficua, emolumenta, firmas, eleemosynas, le daillsilver, obitus et anniversaria quæcunque quæ quovismodo pertinuerunt, aut pertinere denoscuntur, ad quascunque capellanas, altaragia, præbendarias, in quacunque ecclesia, capella aut collegio, infra libertatem dicti nostri burgi de Edinburgh, fundata seu fundanda, per quemcunque patronum, in quarum possessione, capellani aut præbendarii earundem perprius fuerant, ubicunque præfatæ domos, &c. jacent, aut prius levata fuerunt respectivè.' But James, besides approving of, ratifying, and confirming all these, subjoins what expressly designates the purposes for which they were granted. 'Ideo nos enixè cupientes, ut in honorem Dei et commune bonum nostri regni, literatura indies augeatur; volumus et concedimus, quod licebit præfatis Præposito, Consulibus, et eorum successoribus, ædificare et reparare sufficientes domos et loca, pro receptione, habitatione, et tractatione professorum, scholarum grammaticalium, humanitatis et linguarum, philosophiæ, theologiæ, medicinæ, et juris, aut quarumcunque aliarum scientiarum, liberalium, quod declaramus nullam fore rapturam prædictæ mortificationis, &c.' (p. 71—73.)

his biographer and colleague (who had the best opportunities of being informed), multitudes from all corners of the kingdom flocked to Edinburgh to hear his lectures.\*

"As there was no other teacher in this infant institution but himself, he was under the necessity of uniting the students, so as to compose only one class. He soon felt, however, that this was impracticable, so as to do justice to the young men committed to his care. After having made the experiment, he was, in November, obliged to separate them into two classes. The progress which they had made was very different; and a considerable number of them were (was) exceedingly deficient in a knowledge of the Latin language. Now, an acquaintance with that tongue was indispensably necessary to derive any benefit from his prelections. The books that were read and commented upon, the lectures delivered, and the only language tolerated in the class, and even within the college, was Latin. This absurd regulation continued to exist for nearly a century afterwards in its full extent; and, within the last fifty years, the professors delivered all their lectures in the Latin language; and, in examining their students, employed it alone." (p. 79—80.)

It would not be at all gratifying to the generality of readers, if we were in this place to follow the biographical anecdotes of our author, many of which have little or no interest but in their connection with the sensibilities of those who entertain a filial affection for the University; but it is important that we should not neglect to give some account from the materials Mr. Bower has afforded of the method of education adopted at the commencement, and which was continued for so many years. From such a source may be advantageously collected, not only what was the mode of instruction that appeared to the intelligent mind of Professor Rollock best calculated to communicate useful knowledge to youth, but what was the state of literature in Scotland at the close of the sixteenth century.

The session opened in the beginning of October, and appears to have lasted until the end of August. It was presumed that the qualifications of the students were such, that they were prepared to enter upon the perusal of the best classical historians, orators, and poets. It is well known, that at the revival of learning, a partiality for the writings of the great Roman orator was carried to the most unwarrantable excess, which occasioned the raillery of Erasmus, in his *Ciceronianus*; but there was a peculiar reason assigned for this preference in the "*Disciplina Academica Edinburgens*;" for the purpose at the University

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\* "Turmatim ex omnibus regni angulis Edinburgum confluant."



was, not only to lay the foundation of good taste, but also to teach elocution and the art of delivery practically.

“ Translation being one of the best means of acquiring the knowledge of a language, the students were very frequently employed in translating from their vernacular tongue into Latin, and from Latin into their own language. These versions were not to be examined in a superficial manner. The regent was to bestow the greatest pains in correcting errors, if there were any, in etymology, syntax, and orthography. This discipline was in no instance to be relaxed, until the principal prescribed and had examined what was called a ‘common theme.’ This consisted in prescribing a subject, upon which they were to compose a very short commentary.” (p. 84.)

If the theme were approved of, the students commenced the study of the Greek language; but it was certainly extremely injudicious to defer it to so late a period. At that time no Greek grammar had been printed in Scotland, nor were the types of the character in the country sufficient even for this purpose. The grammar employed was that of Clenardus, which was retained in the Scottish Universities for a long period, but which was superseded towards the beginning of the last century by the work of Dunlop of Glasgow, and which still continues to be taught in Marischall College, Aberdeen.

“ When they had gone as far through the grammar as the annotations on the nouns, they were to read some portion of the New Testament, and to apply such rules as they had learned from the grammar to the vocables that occurred. They next read the first and second oration of Isocrates, together with one or two others of the same author, which the professor was left at liberty to select. The propriety of this choice may perhaps be called in question. The late excellent Professor Dalziel seems to have judged better, when, after the New Testament, he read the fables of *Æsop* with his students; and kept them for some time employed in reading prose authors, whose style was the most simple, and at the same time the most perspicuous, and, consequently, contained the greater number of vocables.” (p. 86.)

The students next read Phocilides, (or rather the poetical piece falsely attributed to him,) the first book of Hesiod, and some books of Homer.

It is well known, that for ages expertness in the philosophy of Aristotle was esteemed to be the distinguishing mark of a man of science, but the authors of the Reformation had, at a very early period, agreed to explode the peripatetic philosophy. The person who first declared hos-

tility against the Stagyrite was the celebrated Peter Ramus, a native of Picardy. Rollock adopted the system of rhetoric—or, as it was called, of logic, taught by Ramus, and it was introduced in the first years of the course, while the students were at the same time employed in translating from the Latin and the Greek.

“ The passages which were read from the New Testament, Isocrates, Phocilides, and Hesiod, were committed to memory. They were engaged in disputation on Saturday; and in the morning of Sunday they were instructed in the catechism. There were several editions of this catechism. It contained a short summary, in Latin, of the doctrines in the old Scots Confession, which was subscribed, 2d March, 1580, by the king, and afterwards by the nation. The questions and answers are very short.

“ When the students commenced the second year, they were publicly examined; and the regent prescribed a Greek theme. They immediately proceeded to read the Rhetoric of Talmæus. The whole system of instruction seems to have been formed upon the plan followed by Ramus.” (p. 88—89.)

The attention of the students was next called to the *Pro-gymnasmata* of Aphthonius.

“ The common places of Aphthonius and of Cassander were no doubt calculated in some measure to direct the youth how an oration ought to be composed, and to furnish them with matter proper to be introduced. But though the want of matter constitutes the principal difficulty which young composers have to encounter, yet the rules prescribed are too artificial and too general to be of much use, and, in many instances, rather fetter than assist invention. By the help of these authors, however, short orations were to be composed, in order to exercise their style in dialectics and rhetoric.

“ About the beginning of January, they entered on the study of the *Organon* of Aristotle, together with Porphyry's Introduction, the books of the *Catagories*, the *Analytics*, the first, second, and eighth of the *Topics*, and two of the *Elenchi*. This was undoubtedly the most unprofitable part of the course; but as the great object was to render them able or subtle disputants, it was necessary that they should be early initiated into this mystery. At first, disputations were to be held privately; and, before the end of the year, it was expected that each student should have declaimed in public. The study of mathematics was then in its infancy in almost all the universities of Europe; and, in that of Edinburgh, the science seems to have been almost totally neglected. At the end of the second year, however, a short compend of arithmetic was taught.

“ The third class began the study of Hebrew grammar; for there was not a separate professor of this language until about sixty years after the foundation. They proceeded in reading Aristotle; and,

towards the conclusion of the session, the anatomy of the human body was described. This must have been done solely from books, for there were no dissections in Edinburgh for many years afterwards. And as the whole course of the education was planned principally for the sake of theologians, some common place of divinity was the subject of lecture on the Sunday mornings.

"The attention of the fourth class was directed to what was called physics. The books of *De Cælo*, together with the *Sphæra* of John Sacroboscus, Halifax, or Holywood, were read. Some theories of the planets were explained; and the more remarkable of the constellations were pointed out on the celestial globe, and in the heavens. The books *De Ortu*, *De Meteoris*, and *De Animâ*, succeeded. The course concluded with the perusal of Hunter's *Cosmographia*, and lessons, every Sunday, on controversial divinity. The whole of this, it must be acknowledged, was very superficial; consisting of a short introduction to geography, a comparatively long time spent upon the useless abstractions of Aristotle, and some attention paid to scholastic divinity." (p. 90—92.)

Before the students received their degrees, they were examined privately, and an oath was required from the examiners *de fidei administratione*. When this part of the trial was gone through successfully, the students publicly defended their theses, and were admitted Masters of Art.

Such was the plan adopted, yet the University at this early stage scarcely deserved the name, on account of the small circle to which it was confined, but it progressively gathered strength and expansion. So much exhausted were the funds, that the Town Council appointed a committee "to seek neighbour's benevolence to the College founded in the Kirk of Field;" but the patrons and teachers, although much discouraged by difficulties, were not driven to despair. Even in this situation of things, they determined that the institution should assume a more regular form, so as to resemble other universities, not only in Scotland, but on the Continent, and accordingly in 1585 Rollock was created principal.

It was now resolved that there should be three classes, and two additional regents were therefore wanted. For these stations six competitors appeared, who were to be examined in their knowledge of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, and the whole circle of the sciences; and Mr. Adam Colt and Mr. Alexander Scrimger were declared the successful candidates. Notwithstanding Rollock's election as principal, he still continued his duties as a teacher; but when his students had gone through their literary studies, and

taken their degrees, there was yet no provision made for the prosecution of the study of divinity, for which the former were only preparatory; indeed, the course pursued in universities was principally contrived for the education of churchmen. In such a situation, either a seminary must have been provided where divinity should be taught, or the foundation of a new professorship to teach theology must have been laid. The latter scheme was adopted, and Rollock was nominated professor of divinity, at the time when he had thoroughly studied, and convinced his own mind of the truth of the doctrines of Calvin.

Various conferences took place in the year 1588, between the lawyers and the Town Council, respecting the appointment of a professor of the laws, and there seems to be no doubt that the object of both parties was, in imitation of other institutions, to establish the profession of the canon and civil law; but the professorship of the Scots law is of very modern date.

In the beginning of 1599, the University sustained great loss by the death of Principal Rollock, at the early age of forty-three. As he died very poor, the half of his small salary was allowed his widow for five years, if she lived that term, and his posthumous daughter received a thousand merks from the funds of the city as her dowry.

Mr. Charteris succeeded to the principality and professorship of divinity. During the twenty-one years which he held these offices, he followed implicitly the plan of his predecessor; and little change seems to have taken place in the modes of teaching, or in the general economy of the College, for a considerable time.

“ It is well known that corporeal punishment existed in all the British as well as the continental universities till a late period.— Whether this kind of discipline had been repeatedly carried to an improper length in Edinburgh or not, cannot now be known; but it is certain, that a spirit of insubordination, or, at least, of dissatisfaction, frequently shewed itself about the time of which we are speaking. The confinement within the walls of the college also, to which they were compelled to submit, might render the ungovernable temper of some young men very refractory. Whether one or all of these reasons combined excited discontent, it is in vain to inquire; but desertions from the university had become so common, that it was considered to be necessary to apply to the Lords of the Privy Council, to prevent persons who had been expelled, or who had deserted, from being admitted as members of other universities. This took place in 1611; but the abuse seems to have been of con-

siderable standing. Previous to petitioning the council, a representation was first made to the rectors of the other colleges. It seems to have been transmitted by the principal, Mr. Charteris; but the copy in the college record has no signature." (p. 121—122.)

On the visit of James to his native country, after his accession to the throne of England, the University received the appellation of "King James' College," and it was subsequently sometimes called "Regium Collegium," or King's College, and at other times "Academia Jacobi Regis." It seems that his Majesty at this period promised what he called a "God bairne gift," but his gracious intentions were not fulfilled.

The factions of the church which prevailed, were the consequence of the Reformation; but much as they might disconcert the government, they never, in the smallest degree, prevented the students from resorting to this University, and the interests of learning were zealously and most successfully regarded by the patrons of the institution.

On the 3d of December, 1628, a plan was prescribed, distinguishing the books to be read, and the subjects upon which lectures were to be delivered; which we need not particularly notice, on account of its near correspondence with what we have before mentioned; the private arrangements of the University were, however, now formed into a system, and these latter bear the strongest resemblance to what had been practised for ages in monastic institutions.

It appears, that about the year 1647, much corruption had arisen in the Scottish universities; but the public acts of the visitors of that of Edinburgh, appointed by the General Assembly, are not to be found.

In 1658, Cromwell, who was very bountiful to the University of Glasgow, conferred a grant on that of Edinburgh of 200*l.* per annum; yet, as all his acts were rescinded at the Restoration, this gift was enjoyed only a short period, and it is doubtful if the expenses of acquiring it were not greater than the benefit derived from it.

The industry of philosophers was never more successfully exercised than about this period: Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Galileo, and others, communicated a new impulse to the human mind. The advantages were principally derived from the application of mathematics to physics; but it does not appear that the new philosophy had reached Scotland, and it was only partially known in England. Dr. Isaac Barrow, the tutor of Sir Isaac Newton, had afforded some



data, but his pupil did not demonstrate geometrical problems by infinite series until 1665, and he was then only twenty-four years of age. Gassendi's works were at this time read with enthusiasm by the French and Dutch Protestants; and in a short time afterwards, from the religious connection then subsisting between Protestants of different countries, the works of this philosophical, but miscellaneous writer, became popular, as well in Scotland as in England.

"In 1684, the Scottish nation was in the most distressing and pitiable situation that can be imagined. They had been exposed to the most barbarous and bloody persecution. But, as if their cup of misery had not been full, the privy council ordained, during the course of this year, 'That whosoever owned, or refused to disown, the declaration, on oath, should be put to death, in the presence of two witnesses, though unarmed when taken.' This excited the greatest terror and consternation throughout the whole country. The state of society had now become such, that, in Edinburgh, attention to ordinary business was neglected, and every one was jealous of his neighbour. On this account, the patrons judged that it would be most expedient that there should be no public laureation this year, but that it should be in private. The students had now become so few, that it appeared to be scarcely worth while to observe the public ceremony; and, besides, as the persecuted party threatened retaliation, it was hazardous and unfair that the graduates should be exposed to danger, without a sufficient reason; because they could not obtain their degree without taking the oaths imposed by government." (p. 307—308.)

At the Revolution, the government discovered the greatest anxiety that those who were admitted to professorships, should be persons whose political principles were not inconsistent with those on which the Revolution itself was founded.

In 1692, the universities of Scotland were animated with great zeal for the promotion of learning, and the improvement of their methods of teaching; so that a question which had been long agitated respecting uniformity in the plan of instruction, was again introduced, but nothing was definitively resolved.

Towards the conclusion of the seventeenth century, oriental literature was in the lowest state of degradation, and the great barrier in the way of making progress in the acquisition of the Hebrew tongue, and rendering the study of it more general, was the practice of teaching it with the incumbrance of the Masoretic punctuation.

Sir Robert Sibbald, among his other endeavours to bene-

fit his country, proposed, in 1706, to teach at the University, natural history and medicine; and his lectures were, according to the general practice, to be delivered in Latin. The foundation of a new professorship of the law of nature and nations, appears to have been occasioned, in a great measure, by Mr. Areskine's interest at court, resulting from the active part which his connections had taken in regard to the accomplishment of the union between the two kingdoms. Under the orders of the council of the 16th June, 1708, a Greek professor was appointed on a separate establishment, and on the 18th of October, 1709, the patrons of the University, determined on the nomination of a professor of the civil law.

It was not until the year 1713, that the professorship of chemistry was founded; and indeed, then the science was comparatively in its infancy, although cultivated with so much ardour in the present day. The direction of study into this channel, led to a most important æra in the history of the University; when the medical school was founded: Dr. Pitcairn, who greatly lamented the confined nature of medical education in Edinburgh, greatly interested himself on this subject. A professorship of anatomy was, about the same period, established; and at that time the Duke of Marlborough was at the very height of his reputation as a general, and the destruction of war occasioned a great and increasing demand for medical men in all branches of the service. This was, indeed, the particular reason assigned for introducing to the notice of the patrons, the advantages that would accrue by the erection of an academical chair in Edinburgh.

In 1722, it was considered an object of great importance, that those of the legal profession in Scotland should have every opportunity of being well instructed; and for this desirable purpose a representation was made by one of the advocates to the Town Council. The appointment was immediately determined upon, and Mr. Alexander Bayne, who had exposed the necessity of such a nomination, was himself elected professor for teaching the Scots law, and "qualifying writers to his Majesty's signet."

We have now enumerated, perhaps, all the professorships established, with the exception of botany, midwifery, and humanity; which brings us towards the period of the rebellion in 1745, when all literary pursuits were, for some time, suspended, and almost every other description of employment but what was necessary for the subsistence of life.

When internal quiet was restored, by the termination of the civil war, the patrons directed their attention again to the University. Dr. Whytt was elected professor both of the theory and practice of medicine, and Professor Maclaurin was in the first rank of mathematicians. The author concludes with an account of Dr. Cullen, who held the professorship of the Institutions of Medicine, and of whom he justly says, that Scotland has produced few men who have been greater blessings to their country, and to mankind.

As late as the year 1760, the Scots were not remarkably distinguished as writers in the *Belles Lettres*; but in 1762, appeared the *Elements of Criticism* of Lord Kaimes. Literary property was also, at that period, of little comparative value; yet about 1763, Mr. Hume received 200*l.* for a part of his *History of Britain*, and Dr. Robertson 600*l.* for his *History of Scotland*: each of these appeared in two volumes, quarto. In 1783, such was the improvement of this kind of property, that the last received for his second work 4500*l.* and the first for the remainder of his history, 5000*l.* In the same year, Dr. Blair, having prepared his eloquent sermons, obtained for them the highest price known for a production of that nature; and he was also rewarded by a pension of 200*l.* The golden period of Scotch literature was twenty years preceding that date, in which interval may be named, with Watson, Reid, Oswald, Fergusson, Monboddo, the Gregories and the Stewarts, fifty other authors of exalted merit and reputation.

In 1763, the number of students at Edinburgh, was 500; and such was the subsequent increase, that we find on the college books in 1791, 1255; and in the following year, 1306.

In 1789, the foundation of a magnificent building for a new college was laid; and so popular was this measure, that in five months the voluntary subscriptions amounted to 16,869*l.*, and shortly afterwards the sum was doubled. The botanical garden, which is one of the ornaments of the neighbourhood, was obtained on the recommendation of Professor Hope, who submitted the matter to the consideration of the Lords of the Treasury. The flower garden, belonging to the palace of Holyrood House, and the small inclosure immediately to the east of the new bridge, although very unfit from soil and situation, were formerly the botanic gardens of the University.

On the work of Mr. Bower, we have not much to observe. His information appears to be generally correct,

and his subjects of comparison he has been enabled abundantly to supply, from his acquaintance with learned establishments, both ancient and modern, abroad and at home; but we see no luminous views of education, no valuable hints on the improvements of which academical institutions are capable; and the style is objectionable, both from its Scoticisms, its carelessness, and its languor. If the biographical part of these volumes is often uninteresting, it is rather from necessity than choice; for it was indispensable to the plan of Mr. Bower to give anecdotes of obscure individuals, who, from the accident of situation, became connected with the establishment to which this history refers; but it must be acknowledged, that there are many honourable exceptions, and that the list of professors and preceptors comprehend names that would confer credit and distinction on any university, whether native or foreign.

ART. VI.—*Melincourt.* By the Author of "*Headlong Hall.*" In three volumes, 12mo. London, Hookham, jun. and Co.; and Baldwin, Cradock, and Joy, 1817.

THIS is a political, literary, and personal satire, in three volumes—at least, therefore, the author has allowed himself sufficient room to be tedious, and he has not neglected to avail himself of it, though perhaps not with so much latitude as many readers might at first imagine: an avowed satire, however, occupying about 700 pages, is a little more than the author could reasonably expect to be endured, and he has in consequence given it the appearance of a novel, and he has diversified the story (as far as it may be called a story) by a variety of characters, some of them quite new—such as an ouran-outang, who for the first time makes his appearance as a hero—and others, who do not make the same pretensions to originality.

No doubt the writer of "*Melincourt*" has a good deal of talent, but we will tell him his fault—it is, that he believes he has much more than he really possesses: he was probably a quick boy at school, and afterwards was unlucky enough to become the admiration of a few connections who had not had the same advantages as himself, among whom he has dogmatized about poetry and politics, until he has come to the persuasion that he has a right to dictate to all the rest of the world, and that no one sees things so clearly and so correctly as himself.

"None other counsellor good him semeth  
 But suche as him selfe demeth:  
 For in such wise as he compasseth  
 His witte alone all other passeth."<sup>\*\*\*</sup>  
 And weneth of him selven so,  
 That such as he is, there bee no mo." *Gower's Conf. Am.*

He has consequently started as an author, and having produced "*Headlong Hall*" with tolerable success, he thinks himself warranted in following it up by another piece, in some respects upon the same model. This author's case is not an uncommon one; and the error of too great self-satisfaction into which he has fallen will in time correct itself, and we are much deceived if the sale of the volumes before us will not partially tend to set him right: we fancy that he has too much discernment and discretion to condemn all his readers as envious fools, because they may not think him quite as wise and witty as he wishes, and imagines he deserves to be esteemed. In speaking thus freely, we are by no means desirous of repressing youthful ardour, though we would willingly check youthful presumptuousness, and caution our author against casting his flippant censures at random against time-honoured men and time-hallowed institutions. The author seems to partake of the nature of those "quick wits," of whom old Ascham speaks in his *Schoolmaster*, where he says, that they are "commonly apt to take, unapt to keep; soon hot, and desirous of this and that; as cold, and as soon weary of the same again—more quick to enter speedily than able to pierce far: even like over-sharp tools, whose edges be very soon turned: such wits delight in easy pleasant studies, and never pass forward in high and hard sciences." Consistently with this character, it will be found, on a perusal of these volumes, that, though almost all the topics of the day, whether political, literary, or scientific, are touched upon, and the merits of the men engaged in these pursuits discussed, yet the writer's observations are generally superficial, and if not precisely common-place, they are only redeemed from that epithet by the pleasant and sometimes skilful manner in which they are handled.

The work opens better than it proceeds: the descriptions are more easy, lively, and varied, and the characters seem to possess an originality which they do not afterwards keep up; the second volume is therefore more dull than the first, and the third than the second; yet we should do injustice,



were we not to admit that parts of all are shrewd, ingenious, and humorous. The dialogues, however, are latterly made prolix and prosing, and are rendered now and then still more fatiguing by an affected sagaciousness—wonderful discoveries in morals or physics, which all men but the writer had made long before. The latter remark, however, will not apply to many passages, for the discussions are most frequently entertainingly conducted.

The hero, (or if he be not the hero, a very principal character,) as we have said, is an ouran-outang, or, as he is named, *Sir Oran Haut-ton*; he is a general satire on the species, not of monkeys, but of men: Mr. Forester is a young gentleman of fortune, who, entertaining a great contempt for the degenerate race of his fellow-creatures in a civilized state, procures an ouran-outang, and so far modifies him, that in externals, and in many internals, he resembles a man: he is represented as of a ludicrously fashionable air and appearance, with many polite accomplishments of music, dancing, drawing, &c. but unfortunately without the faculty of speech, for all the pains of his owner could never bring him to the utterance of articulate sounds: had this been accomplished, according to our author's representation, *Sir Oran Haut-ton* would have rivalled the most polished and best men of the day, for his brute nature (if so it may be called) was susceptible of all kinds of good impressions. The information on which this character is founded, is derived from Lord Monboddo's *Ancient Metaphysics* and *Origin and Progress of Language*. We will quote the author's account of this curiosity.

“ He was caught by an intelligent negro very young, in the woods of Angola; and his gentleness and sweet temper, winning the hearts of the negro and negress, they brought him up in their cottage as the playfellow of their little boys and girls, where, with the exception of speech, he acquired the practice of such of the simpler arts of life as the degree of the civilization in that part of Africa admits. In this way he lived till he was about seventeen years of age. At this period, my old friend Captain Hawltaught, of the *Tornado* frigate, being driven by stress of weather to the coast of Angola, was so much struck with the contemplative cast of *Sir Oran's* countenance, that he offered the negro an irresistible bribe to surrender him to his possession. The negro brought him on board, and took an opportunity to leave him slyly, but with infinite reluctance and sympathetic grief. When the ship weighed anchor, and *Sir Oran* found himself separated from the friends of his youth, and surrounded with strange faces, he wept bitterly, and fell into such deep

grief that his life was despaired of. The surgeon of the ship did what he could for him; and a much better doctor, Time, completed his cure. By degrees a very warm friendship for my friend Captain Hawltaught extinguished his recollection of his negro friends. Three years they cruised together in the Tornado, when a dangerous wound compelled the old Captain to renounce his darling element, and lay himself up in ordinary for the rest of his days. He retired on his half-pay and the produce of his prize-money, to a little village in the west of England, where he employed himself very assiduously in planting cabbages and watching the changes of the wind. Mr. Oran, as he was then called, was his inseparable companion, and became a very expert practical gardener. The old Captain used to observe, he could always say he had an honest man in his house, which was more than could be said of many honourable houses where there was much vapouring about honour.

"Mr. Oran had long before shown a taste for music, and, with some little instruction from a marine officer in the Tornado, had become a proficient on the flute and French horn. He could never be brought to understand the notes; but from hearing any simple tune played or sung two or three times, he never failed to perform it with great exactness and brilliancy of execution. I shall merely observe, *en passant*, that music appears, from this and several similar circumstances, to be more natural to man than speech. The old Captain was fond of his bottle of wine after dinner, and his glass of grog at night. Mr. Oran was easily brought to sympathize in this taste; and they have many times sat up together half the night over a flowing bowl, the old Captain singing Rule Britannia, True Courage, or Tom Tough, and Sir Oran accompanying him on the French horn." (p. 70—77.)

It would be idle to attempt to enter into the story, which has little to do with the persons described, and in which the author has shewn a singular meagreness of invention: a young lady, named Anthelia Melincourt, has five or six lovers of different pursuits and dispositions, and almost the only incident is her secret conveyance to a castle on the sea-shore by one of those lovers, Lord Anophel Achthar. It may here be fit to observe, that there is a great peculiarity in the names of the personages; sometimes they are etymological, as that just above mentioned, ΑΝΩΦΕΛΟΥ ΑΧΘΟΣ ΑΡΟΥΡΑΣ, *a useless lump of earth*, denoting the nature and qualities of the individual; sometimes they are compounded of cant-phrases, and sometimes they seem chosen for the mere singularity of the sound: most of the appellations have reference to the individual, his pursuits, or disposition.

It will be obvious before the reader has proceeded far in

the perusal of the first volume, that many of the persons named are meant to be representatives of living characters : we shall not here attempt to supply a key, partly because it is often not worth explanation, and partly because the extracts we shall proceed to furnish will generally sufficiently explain themselves. Most of these characters, more particularly such as are engaged in literary employments, are noticed in the following quotation, which we first give, that our readers may become acquainted with their names : upon their natures we will afterwards speak.

" Mr. Feathernest and Mr. Derrydown got into a hot dispute over Chapman's Homer, and Jeremy Taylor's Holy Living: Mr. Derrydown maintaining that the ballad metre which Chapman had so judiciously chosen, rendered his volume the most divine poem in the world; Mr. Feathernest asserting that Chapman's verses were mere doggrel : which vile aspersion Mr. Derrydown revenged by depreciating Mr. Feathernest's favourite Jeremy. Mr. Feathernest said he could expect no better judgment from a man who was mad enough to prefer Chevy Chase to Paradise Lost; and Mr. Derrydown retorted, that it was idle to expect either taste or justice from one who had thought fit to unite in himself two characters so anomalous as those of a poet and a critic, in which duplex capacity he had first deluged the world with torrents of execrable verses, and then written anonymous criticisms to prove them divine. 'Do you think, Sir,' he continued, 'that it is possible for the same man to be both Homer and Aristotle? No, Sir; but it is very possible to be both Dennis and Colley Cibber, as in the melancholy example before me.'

" At this all the blood of the *genus irritabile* boiled in Mr. Feathernest's veins, and uplifting the ponderous folio, he seemed inclined to bury his antagonist under Jeremy's *weight of words*, by applying them in a *tangible shape*; but wisely recollecting that this was not the time and place

'To prove his doctrine orthodox,  
By apostolic blows and knocks,'

he contented himself with a point-blank denial of the charge that he wrote critiques on his own works, protesting that all the articles on his poems were written either by his friend Mr. Mystic, of Cimmerian Lodge, or by Mr. Vamp, the amiable editor of the Legitimate Review. 'Yes,' said Mr. Derrydown, 'on the *'Tickle me Mr. Hayley'* principle; by which a miserable cabal of doggrel rhymesters, and worn-out paragraph mongers of bankrupt gazettes, ring the eternal changes of panegyric on each other, and on every thing else that is either rich enough to buy their praise, or vile enough to deserve it: like a gang in a country steeple, paid for being a public nuisance, and maintaining that noise is melody.'

" Mr. Feathernest on this became outrageous; and waving Jeremy

Taylor in the air, exclaimed, ' *Oh that mine enemy had written a book !* horrible should be the vengeance of the Legitimate Review ! ' (p. 50—53.)

Mr. Feathernest, the first name that occurs, is perhaps the fairest and best drawn character of that kind in the volumes : he is a poet and a writer in the Legitimate Review, and having obtained a place and a pension, he is said recently, " to have burned his old Odes to Truth and Liberty, and to have published a volume of panegyrical addresses to all the crowned heads in Europe." The application of the name of Mr. Derrydown will be probably understood by the following description of him.

" Mr. Derrydown had received a laborious education, and had consumed a great quantity of midnight oil, over ponderous tomes of ancient and modern learning, particularly of moral, political, and metaphysical philosophy, ancient and modern. His lucubrations in the latter branch of science having conducted him, as he conceived, into the central opacity of utter darkness, he formed a hasty conclusion—' that all human learning is vanity ; ' and one day in a listless mood, taking down a volume of the Reliques of Ancient Poetry, he found, or fancied he found, in the plain language of the old English ballad, glimpses of the truth of things, which he had vainly sought in the vast volumes of philosophical disquisition. In consequence of this luminous discovery, he locked up his library, purchased a travelling chariot, with a shelf in the back, which he filled with collections of ballads, and popular songs ; and passed the greater part of every year in posting about the country, for the purpose, as he expressed it, of studying together poetry and the peasantry, unsophisticated nature and the truth of things." (p. 113—115.)

Mr. Mystic is certainly not one of the happiest representations : he is stated to be a great metaphysician of the new German school, and to be a proficient in the transcendental philosophy, and in the art of wrapping things in themselves clear, in an artificial and impenetrable obscurity. There is a very long chapter, giving an account of Cimmerian lodge, the residence of Mr. Mystic, detailing all its peculiarities, but it is as dull as it is long : it possesses, however, the recommendation (if it be one) of being in some parts quite unintelligible, leaving the reader in doubt whether the writer intend to be serious or humorous, literal or allegorical. Mr. Vamp, the next personage, is the editor of the Legitimate Review, to which Mr. Feathernest contributes : he is spoken of as a man of vast pretensions, but of little substance—who supplies the place

of wit by malignity, and is a determined enemy to improvements of all kinds; he has sworn allegiance to the "powers that be," as long as they continue to be in power.

We ought to notice, that in our second extract, the author has given an instance of what not very unfrequently occurs, viz. that he talks with confidence about matters of which he knows little: he speaks of Chapman's Homer, and of the *ballad-metre* into which he had chosen to translate the Iliad and Odyssey; had the author ever seen the work, he would have known that half of this, upon the whole, admirable version is in the ten-syllable heroic measure, while only the other half is in the verse of fourteen syllables, to which he objects. He had probably heard some one speak of Chapman's Homer, and from thence obtained his whole stock of intelligence.

The best portion of the work in hand is that which relates to politics; we wish the literary and critical part had been handled with equal spirit. The idea of the character of Sir Oran Haut-ton is original, and he is of great use in developing the author's opinions upon national affairs. In the course of the novel he is elected Member of Parliament for the borough of *Onevote*, a single house which sends two members to the House of Commons, who are said virtually to represent the large town of *Novote*, with a population of 50,000 souls. This choice of an ouran-outang, who was able to pay sufficiently for his seat, is one of the severest satires ever published in favour of Parliamentary Reform. We cannot refrain from quoting a part of a speech made by a Mr. Sarcastic, the fellow-representative of Sir Oran Haut-ton, to the inhabitants of *Novote*, assembled to witness the return of two members by Mr. Cristopher Corporate, who forms the whole body of the electors of the borough of *Onevote*:

" ' A Member of Parliament, gentlemen, to speak to you in your own phrase, is a sort of staple commodity manufactured for home consumption. Much has been said of the machinery in the present age, by which one man may do the work of a dozen. If this be admirable, and admirable it is acknowledged to be by all the civilized world, how much more admirable is the improvement of political machinery, by which one man does the work of thirty thousand! I am sure, I need not say another word to a great manufacturing population like the inhabitants of the city of *Novote*, to convince them of the beauty and utility of this most luminous arrangement.

" ' The duty of a representative of the people, whether actual or



virtual, is simply *to tax*. Now this important branch of public business is much more easily and expeditiously transacted by the means of virtual, than it possibly could be by that of actual representation. For when the minister draws up his scheme of ways and means, he will do it with much more celerity and confidence, when he knows that the propitious countenance of virtual representation will never cease to smile upon him as long as he continues in place, than if he had to encounter the doubtful aspect of actual representation, which might, perhaps, look black on some of his favourite projects, thereby greatly impeding the distribution of secret service money at home, and placing foreign legitimacy in a very awkward predicament. The carriage of the state would then be like a chariot in a forest, turning to the left for a troublesome thorn, and to the right for a sturdy oak ; whereas it now rolls forward like the car of Juggernaut over the plain, crushing whatever offers to impede its way.

“ The constitution says that no man shall be taxed but by his own consent : a very plausible theory, gentlemen, but not reducible to practice. Who will apply a lancet to his own arm, and bleed himself ? Very few, you acknowledge. Who then, *à fortiori*, would apply a lancet to his own pocket, and draw off what is dearer to him than his blood—his money ? Fewer still of course : I humbly opine, none. What then remains but to appoint a royal college of state surgeons, who may operate on the patient according to their views of his case ? Taxation is political phlebotomy : the Honourable House is, figuratively speaking, a royal college of state surgeons. A good surgeon must have fine nerves and a steady hand ; and, perhaps, the less feeling the better. Now, it is manifest, that, as all feeling is founded on sympathy, the fewer constituents a representative has, the less must be his sympathy with the public, and the less, of course, as is desirable, his feeling for his patient—the people :—who, therefore, with so much *sang froid*, can phlebotomize the nation, as the representative of half an elector ? ” (p. 119—123.)

The author's satirical disposition—his love of turning of every thing and every body into ridicule—however, defeats his own purpose ; for not being able to restrain himself, he represents the population of the town of Novote as so servile and contemptible, so thoughtless and so drunken, as to be unworthy of a respectable representative ; yet his argument is, that great injustice is done them by virtual representation through the borough of Onevote.

There is one character to whom we have not yet adverted, and who deserves mention, that the author may omit him, or any body like him, in his future productions : we mean a Mr. Fax, who is seriously represented as a very sagacious personage, and whose name is meant to indicate that he is

capable of throwing light upon the darkest subjects : he is now and then tremendously wise, "launching a commonplace with all the fury of a thunderbolt," or unreadable and unintelligible, from a hard struggle to say something new. Mr. Forester and he have several very edifying alternations of this sort.

—————This is an affectation  
To speak beyond men's apprehension ;  
—————when all in fustian suit  
Is cloth'd a huge nothing ; all for the repute  
Of profound knowledge.

ART. VII.—*A Statement regarding The Union, an Academic Debating Society, which existed at Cambridge from February 13, 1815, to March 24, 1817 ; when it was suppressed by the Vice-Chancellor. 8vo. pp. 53. Cambridge, 1817.*

SOME persons have regretted that the pamphlet before us, containing the facts relative to the suppression of a society established among the students at the University of Cambridge, for the discussion of scientific, literary, and political subjects, was unaccompanied by any argument. To this we answer without hesitation, that no argument was necessary ; the facts themselves are sufficient to convince any impartial person that the proceeding was unnecessary, impolitic, and unjust.

It happens unluckily that this association bore the name of *The Union* : it will be recollected that one of those combinations, denounced by the parliamentary secret committees upon treasonable practices, was called the *Union Society*. We will not here enter into the propriety of that denunciation—that question has long been settled in public opinion ; but it is impossible to avoid the suspicion—we do not say the conclusion—that the suppression of the Cambridge Union Society by the Vice-Chancellor of the University, has been accelerated by the unfortunate similarity of appellation : there is a story on record, of a certain sagacious usurping king, who ordered that all children of the name of Peter should be destroyed, because the said king was informed that the rightful heir to his throne was so called ; and the ministers of this free country, or their agents, seem to have acted upon a system of policy equally wise and merciful, for they appear to have given general orders

throughout the country, that all societies bearing the forbidden denomination of Union, shall henceforth utterly cease and determine. Their prototype, however, was overreached, because most of the parents were prudent enough to change the names of their children; and ministers have been nearly unsuccessful, since many societies took care quickly to erase the odious epithet from their archives. All, however, were not so provident; and the Cambridge association is about the tenth *Union Society* that has met with ministerial or magisterial condemnation.

The temperate manner in which this statement is drawn up by the members of the Cambridge Union Society, is highly creditable to them, and at least affords some evidence, that had its suppression been dispensed with, or postponed, no fear need have been indulged as to the regularity and propriety of its proceedings. We quote the two or three observations by which the facts are introduced.

"The following Statement has been drawn up in the hope, that, without infringing the obedience, which the Members of the Union are anxious to evince towards the constituted authorities of the University, they may be able, by an accurate and unvarnished enumeration of facts, to vindicate their claim to a continuation of the indulgence which they have so long experienced.

"They beg leave most particularly to state, that they have offered, and are still willing, *if their meetings can be tolerated on no other condition*, to exclude all political, as they have uniformly all theological, discussion from their debates, and to submit to any other regulations which may appear expedient to existing Vice-Chancellors. A reference to the list of subjects debated will show that latterly many of the questions debated have been in no degree political. Their anxiety to avoid the slightest breach of academical discipline has been such, that they have discontinued an annual dinner of the Members, from the fear of its ever being casually attended with disorder.

"They trust, at least, that when the present peculiar circumstances of the country shall have ceased to exist, they will be treated as they have always been hitherto." (p. v—vi.)

It appears that the unhappy title was given to it because it was formed out of three or four smaller meetings: the first aggregate meeting (here we are afraid we use another prohibited term) was held on the 13th February, 1815, and it continued its weekly assemblies, for the discussion of topics previously settled, during a portion of each term, from that date until the 24th March last, when "its debate was in-

interrupted by the entrance of the Proctors, who laid on its members the commands of the Vice-Chancellor to disperse, and on no account to resume their discussions." When a deputation waited upon the Vice-Chancellor, he confirmed and approved the conduct of the Proctors, and stated his resolution for the future to put an end to the agitation, not only of political, but of literary and all other subjects. The following remonstrance was then voted, and the society adjourned.

#### " REMONSTRANCE.

" The Members of the Union, impressed with the belief that they have been misrepresented to the Vice-Chancellor, and anxious to leave no effort untried which can (*consistently with perfect obedience to academical discipline*) be made for obtaining a continuation of that indulgence, which has been shown to them by all preceding Vice-Chancellors, and by the present Vice-Chancellor during so considerable a period of his official situation, take the liberty of respectfully offering to his consideration the following Statement :

" The Vice-Chancellor having stated to the Deputies of the Society that he was in a great measure induced to prohibit their debates from the circumstance of his having received a letter from one of their Members, stating that the studies of the writer, and those of several of his friends, had been checked, and their prospects blighted by the attention and attendance which they had been obliged to bestow on the Society, it is humbly represented :

" That their Meetings for Debate occur but on One Evening of the week.

" That they are on an average of not more than Two Hours duration.

" That they have in general only commenced after the Division of each Term.

" That they are usually attended by only about Half the Resident Members.

" That consequently, on an average, each individual bestows on the Society only Ten Hours in the course of the whole year, and that the utmost portion of attendance which any Member can contribute is Forty Hours.

" That the attendance of all Members preparing for their degrees is excused.

" That, as a proof that the Union has by no means contributed to withdraw its Members from more important studies, short as has been the duration of the Society, it has had on its list of Members, Three University Scholars, Seven Chancellor's Medallists, Twelve Browne's Medallists, and many names which ranked high on the Tripos.

" That the Members of the Union, of whom a considerable por-

tion are Bachelors of Arts, and many Masters of Arts, are now deprived of a privilege which has been uniformly extended by the Masters of the Public Schools to the Boys under their charge.

*"That the Members are willing to exclude political subjects from their debates, and to submit to any regulation which may not be utterly incompatible with their wish to practise themselves in speaking, a study which they humbly conceive not to be utterly useless.*

"It is further submitted to the Vice-Chancellor, that the existence of a large Speaking Club, forming a weekly point of re-union to its Members, has materially tended to diminish the attendance on weekly Clubs or Meetings, whose conduct is likely to be less orderly, as their amusements are less intellectual than those of the Union.

"The Members of the Union most earnestly request that their Society may not be put down precisely at this period, when the universal suppression of Societies bearing accidentally the same name, may lead those unacquainted with the real state of the University to suppose, that this Club has been put down from political motives, and that it has been guilty of seditious Meetings or treasonable language.

"The Society cannot help hoping, from the justice of the Vice-Chancellor, that their request will be favourably received, and that they will not be made the victims of the calumnies or the folly of a single Member; that they will not be deprived of a privilege which they or their predecessors have so long enjoyed, and which they are not conscious of having deserved to forfeit." (p. viii—xi.)

From this document it appears, that two reasons may have operated on the mind of the Vice-Chancellor in directing this summary exertion of authority: 1. That political questions may be debated; 2. That attendance on the society is such a loss of time, as impedes the advancement of the students. The first objection is removed by the offer to exclude all topics connected with the conduct and measures of Government; and the last is completely answered by the seventh, eighth, and ninth paragraphs of the Remonstrance: it is an answer of fact, and not of argument, and can only be controverted by shewing that the whole week is employed by the members in preparing for the debate, to the neglect of more important pursuits. There however, perhaps, never was a time when a more resolute and persevering attempt was made to exclude political subjects from private conversation as well as from public discussion; it is a part of the same plan recommended by a late ministerial writer, of "curbing the seditious press, and keeping it curbed, that the chief magistrate might not be insulted, and the most sacred institutions vilified



with impunity.”\* Supposing, however, that the discussion of political questions had been continued, how far would the influence of the opinions of a small number of young men, shut up on their studies for the rest of the week, extend? In addition to which, it is to be observed, that the majority of the political questions discussed—perhaps three out of four, as we shall shew more distinctly presently—were decided in favour of the course pursued by the rulers of the present day. The reply of the Vice-Chancellor to the above remonstrance was extremely laconic and unsatisfactory—in the true dogmatical strain of authority: “I do not think it necessary, nor perhaps proper, to return any answer to this statement: I had considered the subject fully in my own mind.” We have shewn that with a rational being, neither of the two objections stated in the Remonstrance could avail: we are therefore to presume, that the Vice-Chancellor (whom we are bound of course to consider a rational being) could not be influenced by them. The question then arises, by what he was influenced? and if it be not answered in our second paragraph, we must leave the reply to him who has shewn himself so competent.

The bye-laws and regulations of the Cambridge Union Society, do not contain any thing very different from those of other meetings, instituted for the purpose of the dissemination of knowledge, and improvement in the art of delivery. They are well adapted to secure order, and to promote and enforce gentlemanly deportment. We shall quote nothing from them, but we shall subjoin a few of the subjects discussed since the formation of the society, with the names of the speakers, as far as they could be collected, and the mode in which the question was decided, in order to shew that the members of it are sufficiently ministerial in their opinions: indeed, the whole system of a university, as at present regulated, is well calculated to produce a superstitious veneration for “the powers that be.”—We call it a superstitious veneration, because, like other superstitions, it does not depend upon reason.

Q. “ ‘Was the conduct of the Opposition in refusing places in 1812 justifiable?’

*Negatived by 35 to 33.*

Q. “ ‘Was the War in 1793 justifiable?’

*Speakers. Mr. Price, Mr. Sperling, Trin. in the affirmative.*

*Mr. Gambier, Mr. Hibbert, senior, Trin. in the negative.*

*Carried in the affirmative by 49 to 26.*

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\* Southey's Letter to Mr. W. Smith, p. 32. (Vide our last Number.)

Q. " ' Is the present Conduct of Government towards Ireland that which Justice and Policy would dictate ?

*Proposed by Mr. Graham, Trin.*

*Opened by Mr. Henniker, Jesus.*

*Speakers.* Mr. Henniker, Jesus; Sir Robert Ferguson, Trin. *in the affirmative.*

Mr. Hort, Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Whitcombe, Trin. *in the negative.*

Carried in the *affirmative* by 33 to 25." (p. 14—16.)

Q. " ' Do Ministers deserve the confidence of the Country ?

*Opened by Mr. Gambier, Trin.*

*Speakers.* Mr. Stainforth, Mr. Sperling, Trin.; Mr. Leycester, St. John's, *in the affirmative.*

Mr. Gambier, Mr. Crowder, Mr. Graham, Mr. Malkin, Mr. Sheridan, Trin.; Mr. Prendergast, Pemb. *in the negative.*

Carried in the *affirmative* by 40 to 30.

Q. " ' Are Triennial Parliaments advisable ?

*Proposed by Mr. Hibbert, Trin.*

*Opened by Mr. Harden, Trin.*

*Negatived unanimously,*" (p. 18—19.)

Q. " ' Is the present System of Popular Meetings advantageous ?

*Proposed by Mr. Windle, Trin.*

*Opened by Mr. Whately, Trin.*

*Speakers,* Mr. Whately, Mr. Whitcombe, Mr. Hawkes. Trin.

*Negatived by 33 to 24.*" (p. 24.)

We have quoted the subjects of discussion, to shew that the society, as a whole, is by no means anti-ministerial; but our readers are mistaken, if they suppose that only questions of politics are agitated: matters of science are generally excluded, from the incompetence of the speakers, but literary topics are not excluded; and we might have inserted several, to prove that they generally excite quite as much interest as any others.

Upon the whole, we cannot avoid the conclusion that the suppression of the Cambridge Union Society, is an exercise of authority unnecessary, wanton and impolitic.

## THE DRAMA.

ART. VIII.—*Comic Dramas: in Three Acts.* By MARIA EDGEWORTH, Author of "*Tales of Fashionable Life*," &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 381. London, R. Hunter, 1817.

Few people are sensible of the very great distinction existing between a novel and a play, and of the different requi-

sites for the writing of the one and of the other : in general it is imagined, that because an author can compose a novel, he must be able to produce a play. To correct this mistake, the volume before us will in part contribute : perhaps, on the whole, there are no persons so incompetent to produce a first-rate dramatic production, as those who have often been successful in detailed and minute narratives. The preface to these *Comic Dramas* touches upon this point ; but Miss Edgeworth does not seem at all aware, that by the nature of her previous pursuits she may be said almost to be incapacitated from being successful in her new attempt : speaking of the dissimilarity between a tale and a comedy, she says, that in the first " there is room for that detail of small circumstances, and for that gradual developement of sentiments and incident, which make us acquainted with the persons whose adventures are related, and which insensibly interest us in the fable." The dramatist and the novelist have, indeed, very few things in common : each is employed in developing a fable, but this is nearly all ; the two modes of doing so resemble in no respect ; the one deals in reality, the other in description—the one has to do only with broad outlines, the other with little particulars and petty incidents—the one is composed of the coarse and obtrusive features of character, the other of the finer and more delicate shades of sentiment and passion. As well might we expect an enameller to become at once a great historical painter, as a novel writer, on the first trial especially, to be very successful in theatrical composition. Miss Edgeworth, however, is extremely diffident, and as a warrant for her new work, mentions the encouragement she received by an invitation from the late R. B. Sheridan to write for Drury-Lane, and the advice he gave her for the accomplishment of her task : she also inserts, according to custom, the *imprimatur* of her father, who it should seem, with a little allowance for parental partiality, had pronounced the work in our hands worthy of publication. Our author, indeed, appears sensible of some of the difficulties she had to encounter, though not of all ; for had she been aware of them, and of their almost insurmountable nature in many respects, we hardly think she would have risked her reputation on a species of composition to which she was entirely unaccustomed.

She states, that her principal object has been " to feel her way in this new career," before she ventured upon " a bolder flight ;" which we suppose to mean, before she ha-

zarded a piece expressly written for the stage. Whether she imagines that either of the three now before us are adapted for that purpose, we are not precisely informed: the name of Miss Edgeworth would undoubtedly go far with an audience, so often and so pleasantly employed in reading her productions of a different kind, but we are much deceived, even with this advantage, if any of these dramas, but especially the two first, would meet with the approbation of a public audience. We will first speak of them collectively, and then proceed to notice each of them separately.

They are all essentially undramatic in their structure and composition, and are much more like short stories in dialogue than "*Comic Dramas*:" they want the three great requisites, of plot, incident, and character; the first is meagre, the second trifling, and the last insignificant. Whole scenes—we might almost say whole acts—are occupied with mere "talk that serves to fill up time upon the stage." Discourses upon abstract questions, if wittily or ingeniously conducted, may be introduced into a novel, but cannot be endured in a play; we sit down in an easy chair, or lounge upon a sofa, to read the one, and we may go to sleep over it, or lay it by, as we please—but we cannot enjoy this luxury at a theatre, whether crammed in the pit or crowded in the boxes; we do not go there merely to loll away our time, but to be entertained, and to be kept awake—our senses all in action, and our feelings all alive. In a novel, trifling incidents may be made important in the gradual display of character, or by leading to more important events; but, on the stage, every change must not only be rapid and decisive, but striking; the audience cannot wait until the author shall come to the end of a chapter devoted to the convincing of the reader, that a transaction apparently insignificant, is in reality of the first consequence. In point of character, the persons introduced into these dramas are really much inferior to any hitherto even sketched by Miss Edgeworth: perhaps, not being at home in this new department of the art, she was unable to apply any of those strong and masterly touches which she has shewn herself capable of giving in some of her earlier performances. It is in this particular that the dramatist and the novelist approach the nearest to each other, but here, as by a fatality, our author has almost completely failed, more especially in the two first of her performances.

The scene of the first drama, "*Love and Law*," is laid

in Ireland, and the characters, without any exception, are natives of that country, and what would preclude it from being acted, (at least in its present form) were there no other objection, is, that the persons are represented as speaking the brogue in all its ancient purity. The story is this:—The families of the Rooneys and M'Brides are at enmity about a piece of bog-land, as is not uncommon in the sister kingdom: the former, though now low in rank and education, have once been richer, and claim descent from some of the kings of Ireland; the latter appear to have been of Scotch extraction, and, by honest industry on a farm, have been gradually saving money. Old M'Bride has a daughter named Honor, and she is loved by Randal Rooney, son of Catty Rooney, a vicious and violent scold, and head of her faction. Honor M'Bride is also courted by Mr. Gerald O'Blaney, a fraudulent distiller and ci-devant attorney: the question is, therefore, who shall have her? a fight between the M'Brides and Rooneys takes place at a fair, the latter are beaten, and Catty Rooney lays a complaint before Mr. Carver, a magistrate, in whose presence the whole affair is investigated, not without many interruptions from the impetuous vociferations of Mrs. Rooney. Here it appears that Philip M'Bride, son to old M'Bride and brother to Honor, had done some service to Randal Rooney in the conflict; the family feud is accordingly soon made up, and a match as suddenly settled between Randal and Honor, while the adept in the knaveries of law and distilling is discovered, ruined, and exposed. These are really all the particulars of the fable, and our readers will no doubt wonder how the author could be ingenious enough to spread them over three long acts, that might have been divided without much difficulty into five: so, however, it is, with the assistance of a new pair of boots and a silver-topped riding-whip, belonging to Philip M'Bride, which are the occasions of several discussions; and with the aid also of the impertinences of Miss Bloomsbury, the lady's-maid of Mrs. Carver, who, as well as her mistress, very little contribute to the conclusion of the piece.

There are, of course, some scenes that are interesting, and tolerably well conducted; it would, indeed, be extraordinary there were not; and from these we shall prefer making our extracts at present, though, in order to justify some of the foregoing remarks, we shall insert others in a subsequent part of our review. Honor has given her word



to her father that she will not see Randal Rooney, or marry him, without consent: while Old M'Bride is from home, Randal arrives, and opens the house-door; she endeavours to shut him out—

" *Honor.* Then I won't see you this month again, if you do.—My hand's weak, but my heart's strong, Randal.

" *Randal.* Then my heart's as weak as a child's this minute.—Never fear—don't hold against me, Honor,—I'll stand where I am, since you don't trust me, nor love me,—and best so, may be—I only wanted to say three words to you.

" *Honor.* I can't hear you now, Randal.

" *Randal.* Then you'll never hear me more. Good by to you, Honor.

(*He pulls the door to, angrily.*)

" *Honor.* And it's a wonder as it was you didn't meet my father as you came, or my brother.

" *Randal.* (*Pushing the door a little open again.*)—Your brother!—Oh, Honor! that's what's breaking my heart, (*he sighs*), that's what I wanted to say to you, and listen to me. No fear of your father, he's gone down the road—I saw him as I come the short cut, but he didn't see me.

" *Honor.* What of my brother?—say, and go.

" *Randal.* Aye, go—for ever, you'll bid me, when I've said—

" *Honor.* What! oh, speak, or I'll drop.—(*She no longer holds the door, but leans against a table.—Randal advances and looks in.*)

" *Randal.* Don't be frightened then, dearest—its nothing in life but a fight at a fair. He's but little hurted.

" *Honor.* Hurted!—and by who? by you is it?—Then all's over.—(*Randal comes quite in—Honor, putting her hand before her eyes.*)—You may come or go, for I'll never love you more.

" *Randal.* I expected as much!—But she'll faint.

" *Honor.* I won't faint,—leave me, Mr. Randal.

" *Randal.* Take this water from me,—(*holding a cup*)—it's all I ask.

" *Honor.* No need—(*she sits down*)—But what's this?—(*seeing his hand bound up*)

" *Randal.* A cut only.

" *Honor.* Bleeding—stop it.—(*turning from him coldly.*)

" *Randal.* Then by this blood—no not by this worthless blood of mine—but by that dearest blood that fled from your cheeks, and this minute is coming back, Honor, I swear.—(*kneeling to her.*)

" *Honor.* Say what you will, or swear, I don't hear or heed you. And my father will come and find you there—and I don't care.

" *Randal.* I know you don't—and I don't care myself what happens me. But as to Phil, its only a cut in the head he got, that signifies nothing—if he was not your brother.

" *Honor.* Once lifted your hand against him,—all's over.

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" *Randal*. Honor, I did not lift my hand against *him*—but I was in the quarrel with his faction.

" *Honor*. And this your promise to me not to be in any quarrel!—No, if my father consented to-morrow, I'd niver have you now.—(*Rises, and is going—he holds her.*)

" *Randal*. Then you're wrong, Honor,—you've heard all against me—now hear what's for me.

" *Honor*. I'll hear no more,—let me go.

" *Randal*. Go then,—(*he lets her go, and turns away himself,*)—and I'm going before Mr. Carver, who *will* hear me, and the truth will appear—and tho' not from you, Honor, I'll have justice.

(*Exit Randal.*)

" *Honor*. Justice! Oh, worse and worse! to make all public—and, if once we go to law, there's an end of love—for ever.

(*Exit Honor.*)" (p. 85—86.)

The subsequent is a part of the scene before Mr. Justice Carver, (an empty, imperious, intermeddling magistrate,) in which Catty Rooney's powers of scolding are displayed to great advantage.

" *Mr. Carr*. Now, gentlemen, all of you, before I hand you the book to swear these examinations, there is one thing, of which I must warn and apprise you,—that I am most remarkably clear-sighted; consequently there can be no *thumb-kissing* with me, gentlemen.

" *Big Briny*. We'll not ax it, plase your honor.

" *Catty*. No Rooney, living or dead, was ever guilty, or taxed with the like. (*Aside to her son.*) Oh, they'll swear iligant. We'll flog the world! and have it all our own way—oh, I knew we'd get justice—or I'd know why.

" *Clerk*. Here's the book, sir, to swear the complainants.

(*Mr. Carver comes forward.*)

" *Mr. Carr*. Wait!—wait, I must hear both sides.

" *Catty*. Both sides! oh, plase your honor—only bother you?

" *Mr. Carr*. Madam, it is my duty to have ears for all men—Mr. Philip, now for your defence.

" *Catty*. He has none in nature, plase your honor.

" *Mr. Carr*. Madam, you have had my ear long enough, be silent, at your peril.

" *Catty*. Ogh!—ogh!—silent! (*she groans piteously.*)

" *Mr. Carr*. Sir, your defence, without any preamble or preambulation.

" *Phil*. I've no defence to make, plase your honor, but that I'm innocent.

" *Mr. Carr*. (*Shaking his head.*) The worst defence in law, my good friend, unless you've witnesses.

" *Phil*. All present that time in the fair, was too busy fighting for themselves, to witness for me, that I was not; except I'd call upon one that would clear me entirely, which is that there young man on the opposite side.

" *Catty.* Oh, the impudent fellow. Is it my son ?

" *Old M<sup>r</sup>.B.* Is it Randal Rooney?—Why Phil, are you turned innocent.

" *Phil.* I am not, father, at all. But with your lave, I call on Randal Rooney, for he is an undeniable honorable man,—I refer all to his evidence.

" *Randal.* Thank you, Phil. I'll witness the truth on whatever side.

*Catty.* (*Rushes in between them, exclaiming, in a tremendous tone.*) If you do, Catty Rooney's curse be upon—

" *Randal.* (*Stops her mouth, and struggles to hold his mother back.*) Oh, mother, you couldn't curse.

(*All the Rooneys get about her, and exclaim, Oh, Catty, your son—you couldn't curse!*)" (p. 105—108.)

The scene of the "Two Guardians," the second drama in this volume, is laid in London, and the characters are persons of a higher and more polished rank, but have still fewer remarkable and contrasted features to make them fit agents in a play: they are all common-places of life and manners. The hero, St. Albans, is formed upon the model of Belcour, in Cumberland's West Indian, and is in truth a native of our trans-atlantic colonies: he is a rich heir, and his father on his death-bed appointed him two guardians,—one a pauper peer, with a manœuvring wife and an intriguing daughter, who wish to entrap the young ward; the other an honest, plain, country gentleman of fortune, who is only anxious for the independence and welfare of his charge. The will of the father enables the son to decide with which of his guardians he will live, and all the chief incidents of the piece are produced by the endeavours on the part of Lady Courtington and her daughter to inveigle the ingenuous young man into a marriage: these artifices are quite of a common vulgar sort, such as pretences to charity, truth, and other virtues, and the management of them is not to be compared for a moment with a story by the same author, in which nearly similar characters with similar designs are introduced. In the end, of course, a discovery is made, which induces the hero, St. Albans, to select the country gentleman, Mr. Onslow, for his guardian, and to break off all connection with the family of Lord Courtington. The manner in which this *denouement* (if so it may be called, when the plot has been discovered after the first scene) is brought about, is rather ludicrous: St. Albans, after a fall, finds that Beauchamp, the son of Lord and Lady Courtington, was about to cheat him in the price

of the horse which occasioned the accident; St. Albans immediately denounces nearly the whole family, although the disclosure respecting the purpose and practices of Lady Courtington and her daughter is not made to him, or at least he does not give credit to them, until afterwards.

The following is the opening of the second scene, which discovers the dispositions and intentions of two of the principal personages, Juliana and Beauchamp, the son and daughter of the pauper peer, one of the guardians of St. Albans.

*" Juliana running over the keys of the pianoforte.*

*" Juliana, (singing.)*

*" ' The first time at the looking-glass  
The mother sets her daughter ;  
The image strikes the smiling lass  
With self-love ever after.' "*

*(Rising, and coming forward, repeats.)*

*" ' The first time at the looking-glass,  
The mother sets her daughter.'*

*" How vastly good, and vastly stupid that daughter was, to wait till her mother set her at the looking-glass. Had girls no eyes in those days ?—My mamma sighs, and says, in her moralizing tone, ' Beauty is such a dangerous thing for young girls,'—that it ought to be kept only for old women, I suppose. Then while she is dressing me—no, while she is dressing herself, she is so sentimental about it,—' My dear Juliana, (mimicking a sentimental tone), one must be at the trouble of dressing, because one must sacrifice to appearances in this world ; but I value only the graces of the mind.' Yes, mamma,—(as if spoken aside),—that's the reason you are rousing yourself.—(In the mother's tone.) ' Beauty after all is such a transient flower.' So I see, mamma—(she starts.)—Mercy !—here's mamma coming !—I must be found practising.—(Begins to play a serious lesson.)*

*" Enter Beauchamp.*

*" Beau. Practising, Ju !—Practising for ever !—what a bore !*

*" Jul. La ! brother, you frightened me so ! I thought it was mamma, and after all 'tis only you.*

*" Beau. Only me ! That's a good one !—Cool ! faith.—But come here now, Ju : if you've any taste, admire me, just as I stand—from top to toe !—all the go !—Hey ?*

*" Jul. No, this thing about your neck is horrid—I'll make it right.*

*" Beau. Hands off !—not for your life.*

*" Jul. As you please ; but I assure you, you are all wrong.*

*" Beau. All right—*

*" Jul. At Eton, may be, but not in Lon'on, I can tell you.*

" *Beau.* You can tell me ! and how should you know, when you are not out yet ?

" *Jul.* But I suppose I've eyes, tho' I'm not out ; and, my dear Beauchamp, consider, I saw the Duke of Beltravers but yesterday.

" *Beau.* Very likely, my darling. But to settle your mind at once, this is the way Blgrave wears his. This is the knowing touch—the more like your coachman, the more like a gentleman.

" *Enter Popkin.*

" *Pop.* Mr. Lichenschwartz, Ma'am.

" *Beau.* Mr. who the deuce is it ?

" *Jul.* Only one of my dozen masters, brother.

" *Pop.* The little pug-faced fellow, Sir, the dirty fellow as you wonder'd to meet t'other day on the stairs, with the weeds and stones in the blue handkerchief.

" *Beau.* What in heaven do you do with that fellow, Ju ?

" *Jul.* Oh ! brother, Professor Von Lichenschwartz is a very famous man—he dines with the duke of Beltravers ; and he teaches me and the Miss Minchins mineralogy, and botany, and chemistry, twice a week." (p. 147—150.)

This satire upon the fashionable mode of deforming, instead of informing, the minds of the young women of the present generation, is carried on to a considerable extent, much in the same style. We are soon introduced to St. Albans, who is one of those favourite characters found in almost every play ; he is " every thing by fits, and nothing long," but with personal and mental qualifications to attain the highest honours. In the first scene in which we see him, he is imposingly represented telling a black boy he had brought from the West Indies, that he has made him free, giving him at the same time a purse full of gold. Quaco, the young negro, afterwards performs a very active and important part, displaying an excess of gratitude that is even obtrusive and sickening ; we are tired, too, of his West-Indian English, with an eternal repetition of " good Massa," " kind Massa," &c.

We have before observed upon the quantity of time wasted in doing nothing in the course of these dramas : this is particularly remarkable of the piece we are now considering ; and, as a proof of it, we quote the following portion of a scene, in the early part of which Juliana, St. Albans, and some other young ladies and gentlemen, have been taking a lesson of dancing—a very dramatic exhibition to be sure, and advancing the plot most rapidly ;—towards the end, however, it has some little connection with the story, by the introduction of a Mrs. Beauchamp, a poor relation of the family of Courtington, to whom Ju-



liana is indebted for lessons on the harp, and who becomes importunate for payment, as her children are starving. The following might tell very well in a novel, but nothing can be worse, or more lifeless, in a play.

" *Pop.* I declare to goodness, Ma'am, I've done my best. But, Ma'am, she's taking on so, and Lady Minchin's servants within hearing, and that black,—(*Quaco turns away, appears not to be listening*)—that there black even, who was below, was ready to cry like a fool, as he is, when she talked of her children starving; so all the scandal being fallen on me, I was put to a non-plush, Ma'am.

" *Jul.* Her children starving! Oh, that's shocking, if it's true—you never told me a word of that before, Popkin.

" *Pop.* I did, indeed, Miss—this morning.

" *Quaco.* (*Aside.*) Ha! Miss! you hear dat?

" *Jul.* If you did, I forgot it. Popkin, tell Clarke to send me my ridicule; I've a notion I've notes there that will do. Stay, Popkin, Mademoiselle Le Blanc promised—

" *Lady C.* Never mind.—Go, Popkin, tell Clarke to bring the ridicule—pay Mrs. Beauchamp, Juliana, and have done with her.—(*Exit Popkin, with his usual pirouette.—Lady Courtington turning to the rest of the company.*)—M. Le Grand, you were talking of some charming French artificial flowers—do let the Miss Minchins have a look at them.—(*Returning to Juliana, and speaking in a low voice.*) I am sure I thought, Juliana, you had paid Mrs. Beauchamp long ago.

" *Jul.* And I thought, mamma, that you had settled with her for the harp lessons,—so that made my conscience quite easy.

" *Lady C.* Well! say no more about it now—all this whispering will seem odd. There are the Miss Minchins, and Captain Mar-dyke, standing up, wondering—and Beauchamp is so impatient, he'll blurt out something.

" *Jul.* He knows nothing—that's one comfort,

" *Lady C.* And here comes St. Albans himself,—leave the ridicule to me, I'll settle it all.

" *St. Alb.* (*Coming between them.*) Do I interrupt?

" *Lady C.* Interrupt!

" *Jul.* You!—Oh, no.—'Twas only—

" *Lady C.* Only about a poor widow—a sort of protégée of ours.

" *St. Alb.* (*Looking tenderly at Juliana.*)—Aye, so I thought—some charitable secret.—Dear, amiable Juliana, how it confuses her.—(*Kisses her hand.*)—(*Aside.*) How I wish Arthur Onslow could see her at this moment!

" *Quaco.* (*Aside.*) Ah, Massa!—Love blind!—Love deaf too!  
(*The three Miss Minchins, crowned with artificial flowers, advance, led forward by M. le Grand.*)

" *M. le Gr.* Viola, qui est charmante!—Behold what is charming!—(*After placing the young ladies, M. le Grand passing behind*

them, and pointing with his fiddlestick to each of their crowns of flowers.) Le Jonquille!—Le Jacinte!—Le Chevrefeuille de Jonquille!—De Hyacin—de what you call, honee-sockel.

(The three Miss Minchins titter in three different tones—He! He! He!—Ha! Ha! Ha!—Ho! Ho! Ho!)

“Lady C. Charming!—quite charming!—really charming!

“M. le Gr. Eh pour mademoiselle Viola! and for Mees.—

(Turning to Juliana, and displaying a crown of roses and hawthorn, approaches her—St. Albans eagerly taking it from his hands.)

“St. Alb. Allow me, M. le Grand—you know it was my choice.

“M. le Gr. Ah, Oui—de taste of monsieur, for mademoiselle.

“St. Alb. (Kneeling, presents the crown to Juliana.) Queen of the May!

“M. le Gr. Belle attitude, ça!—Fine attitude, dat?—And mademoiselle!—she retire one step—modeste Anglaise!—English modesty!—but accept always, Mees, and relieve Monsieur—Relevez Monsieur.

(The Miss Minchins.—He! He! He!—Ha! Ha! Ha!—Ho! Ho! Ho!) (p. 172—176.)

After his fall from the horse which Beauchamp wished to palm upon St. Albans, the latter is conveyed, with a dislocated shoulder, to the lodging of Mrs. Beauchamp, the poor teacher of the harp; his mother is the first to visit him, and to her St. Albans discloses his newly-formed opinions of the family of Lord Courtington.

“Mrs. St. Albans.—St. Albans is lying on an old sofa.

“St. Alb. Yes, I was stunned by the fall at first,—but I assure you, my dear mother, I am perfectly well again now, and you must not keep me here on a sofa. (Rising.)

“Mrs. St. Alb. But your shoulder, Quaco told me, is terribly hurt.

“St. Alb. Never mind what Quaco told you,—he was so frightened, poor fellow, he did not know what he saw or said: ’Tis only a cut, and a bruise.

“Mrs. St. Alb. The surgeon said you should be kept quiet.

“St. Alb. Surgeons always say so.—But, dear mother, what signifies the pain of body compared with the pain of mind I have felt, and must feel,—Beauchamp, whom I thought my friend!—

“Mrs. St. Alb. To hazard my son’s life for the sake of a few guineas!

“St. Alb. Then he would laugh it off, and tell me, that gentlemen in England call this only jockeying. I can’t, I won’t believe it.

“Mrs. St. Alb. Believe it, no!—Who could believe that any gentleman in England would conspire, with his coachman or his groom, to cheat his friend?

“St. Alb. Blagrove’s a rogue; but there is a footman too, at

Lady Courtington's, who has done infinite mischief.—Did Mr. Onslow tell you about Popkin, and the tickets?

"*Mrs. St. Alb.* Yes, all that he heard this morning in the book-seller's shop, from poor professor Lichenschwartz, about Juliana. She has paid dearly for her accomplishments.—Accomplishments!—What are they, if truth, if principle have been sacrificed?

"*St. Alb.* But her mother is more to blame than Juliana.

"*Enter Mr. Beauchamp Courtington, on the opposite side.*

"*Beau.* So, St. Albans! glad to see you alive, and a foot again, —ugly tumble.—But don't take it to heart, man—come, shake hands, and be friends.

"*St. Alb.* Excuse me, Mr. Courtington: once I thought you my friend, but that time is past—for ever past!

"*Beau.* (*With a forced laugh.*) Why, man, this is only what we call jockeying in England—fair between friends as well as foes,—follow my advice—take your revenge. Jockey the first fresh fellow you meet,—*me*, if you are up to it: till then, fare you well.

(*Exit Beauchamp Courtington.*)" (p. 241—243.)

We are happy now to arrive at the third drama in this volume, because it is undoubtedly considerably better than those which precede it; the characters are more varied and spirited, and the story is more interesting: it may, however, like the others, be told in a few sentences. Miss O'Hara, an heiress, has built a new inn, in the village of Bannow in Ireland, and several persons petition to become her tenant, the principal of whom are; M'Christy Gallagher, a drunken landlord, who had kept the old inn, now in a state of ruin; the widow Larken, a poor but respectable woman, residing in the neighbourhood, whose circumstances had been reduced; and Gilbert, an honest servant to Sir William Hamden, an English baronet, and guardian to Miss O'Hara. Gilbert is in love with Mabel Larken, daughter of the widow, but being of a very bashful disposition, he does not venture to declare himself. Christy Gallagher sends some complimentary verses, containing his request for the inn, to the heiress, and, unknown to Sir William Hamden, she writes at the bottom of them, "the poet's petition is granted;" consequently it is supposed that Gilbert and the Widow Larken are disappointed; but it turns out that the lines were written by Owen Larken, a boy of fifteen, the son of the widow, and of course, under the words "the poet's petition is granted," he becomes entitled to the tenancy of the inn, which he resigns in favour of Gilbert, who had previously made known his affection to Mabel. One of the *dramatis personæ* is a Mr.

Andrew Hope, the drum-major of a Scotch band, and as he contributes much to the accomplishment of the wishes of Gilbert and Mabel, and as the other persons are a mixture of English and Irish, the new inn bears the sign of the Rose, Thistle, and Shamrock, from which the piece takes its title.

This fable possesses a little interest, as our readers will perceive from the above sketch, and the persons are not so ill contrasted, more particularly Florinda Gallagher and Mabel Larken—the first being a flaunting, piano-jingling miss, and the other an innocent, simple, and affectionate country girl. The dialogue of this drama is in several respects superior to the others. The opening of the first act gives a good picture of the miseries of a low Irish inn, conducted by a tipsy landlord, his boarding-schooled daughter, and a girl named Biddy Doyle, who does all the work of the house: the subsequent is part of a dialogue between the two former: Miss Florinda is dressing in all her finery in the parlour, for the purpose of receiving the Scotch band, and when her father knocks at the door, tells him that he cannot come in, and bolts the door against him.

*" Enter Christy Gallagher, kicking the door open.*

*" Christy.* Can't I, dear?—what will hinder me?—Give me the key of the spirits, if you please.

*" Miss G.* Oh, Sir! sees how you are walking through all my things.

*" Christy.* And they on the floor!—where else should I walk, but on the floor, pray, Miss Gallagher?—Is it, like a fly, on the ceiling you'd have me be, walking with my head upside down, to please you.

*" Miss G.* Indeed, Sir, whatever way you're walking, it's with your head upside down, as any body may notice, and that don't please me at all—isn't it a shame, in a morning?

*" Christy.* Phoo! don't be talking of shame, you that knows nothing about it. But lend me the key of the spirits, Florry.

*" Miss G.* Sir, my name's Florinda—and I've not the key of the spirits at all, nor any such vulgar thing.

*" Christy.* Vulgar! is it the key?

*" Miss G.* Yes, Sir, it's very vulgar to be keeping of keys.

*" Christy.* That's lucky, for I've lost all mine now. Every single key I have in the wide world now I lost, barring this key of the spirits, and that must be gone after the rest too, I b'lieve, since you know nothing of it, unless it be in this here chist. (*Christy goes to the chest.*)

*" Miss G.* Oh mercy, Sir!—Take care of the looking-glass, which is broke already. Oh then, father, 'tis not in the chist 'pon

my word and honor now, if you'll b'lieve; so don't be rummaging of all my things. (*Christy persists in opening the chest.*)

"*Christy.* It don't signify, Florry; I've granted myself a ginerall sarch-warrant, dear, for the kay; and by the blessing, I'll go clane to the bottom o' this chist.—(*Miss Gallagher writhes in agony.*)—Why what makes you stand twisting there like an eel or an ape, child?—What, in the name of the ould one, is it you're afeard on? Was the chist full now of love-letter scrawls from the Grand Signior or the Pope itself, you could not be more tinder of them.

"*Miss G. Tinder, Sir!*—to be sure, when it's my best bonnet I'm thinking on, which you are mashing entirely.

"*Christy.* Never fear, dear! I won't mash an atom of the bonnet, provided always, you'll mash these apples for me, jewel. (*He takes apples out of the chest.*) And wasn't I lucky to find them in it? Oh, I knew I'd not sarch this chist for nothing. See how they'll make an iligant apple-pie for Mr. Gilbert now, who loves an iligant apple-pie above all things—your iligant self always excipted, dear.

(*Miss Gallagher makes a slight curtsy, but motions the apples from her.*)

"*Miss G.* Give the apples then to the girl, Sir, and she'll make you the pie, for I suppose she knows how.

"*Christy.* And don't you then, Florry?

"*Miss G.* And how should I, Sir?—You didn't send me to the dancing-school of Ferrinafad to larn me to make apple-pies, I conclude.

"*Christy.* Troth, Florry, 'twas not I sint you there, sorrow *fut* (foot) but your mother; only she's in her grave, and it's bad to be talking ill of the dead any way. But be that how it will, Mr. Gilbert must get the apple-pie, for rasons of my own that need not be mitioned." (p. 275—278.)

Miss Clara O'Hara is intended for a specimen of an Irish heiress—witty and thoughtless, but, of course, benevolent and generous to an extreme: we cannot flatter Miss Edgeworth that she has been very successful in her attempts at sprightly dialogue; we wonder, indeed, that she should have so absolutely failed as in the subsequent extract, where the young lady begins with a very choice phrase.

"*Clara.* (*Advancing to him playfully.*) A silver penny for your thoughts, uncle.

"*Sir W.* Shall I never teach you economy—such extravagance, to give a penny, and a silver penny for what you may have for nothing.

"*Clara.* Nothing can come of nothing—speak again.

"*Sir W.* I was thinking of you, my—*ward* no longer.

"*Clara.* Ward, always, pray, Sir.—Whatever I may be in the eye of the law, I am not arrived at years of discretion yet, in my own opinion, nor in yours, I suspect.—So I pray you, uncle, let me still have the advantage of your counsel and guidance.



" Sir W. You ask for my advice, Clara.—Now let me see whether you will take it.

" Clara. I am all attention.

" Sir W. You know you must allow me a little prosing. You are an heiress, Clara—a rich heiress—an Irish heiress. You desire to do good, don't you?

" Clara. (*With eagerness.*) With all my heart!—with all my soul!

" Sir W. That is not enough, Clara.—You must not only desire to do good, you must know how to do it.

" Clara. Since you, uncle, know that so well, you will teach it to me.

" Sir W. Dear, flattering girl—but you shall not flatter me out of the piece of advice I have ready for you.—Promise me two things.

" Clara. And first, for your first.

" Sir W. *Finish whatever you begin.*—Good beginnings, it is said, make good endings; but great beginnings often make little endings, or, in this country, no endings at all. *Finis—coronat opus*—and that crown is wanting wherever I turn my eyes. Of the hundred magnificent things your munificent father began—

" Clara. (*Interrupting.*) Oh, Sir, spare my father!—I promise you that I will finish whatever I begin. What's your next command?

" Sir W. Promise me that you will never make a promise to a tenant, nor any agreement about business, but in writing—and empower me to say that you will never keep any verbal promise about business—then, none such will ever be claimed.

" Clara. I promise you—Stay!—This is a promise about business, I must give it to you in writing.

(*Miss O'Hara sits down to a writing-table, and writes.*)

Sir W. (*Looking out of the window.*) I hope I have been early enough giving in this my second piece of advice, worth a hundred sequins—for I see the yard is crowded with grey-coated suitors, and the table here is already covered with letters and petitions.

" Clara. Yes, uncle, but I have not read half of them yet.

(*Presents the written promise to Sir William.*)

" Sir W. Thank you, my dear; and you will be thankful to me for this, when I am dead and gone." (p. 310—313.)

We have only room for one other specimen, and it must be a short one, from the third act, after Gilbert has declared his love to Mabel.

" *Widow Larken's Cottage.*

" *Widow Larken, Mabel, and Gilbert.*

" *Gilb.* And could you doubt me, Mabel, after I told you I loved you?—

" *Mabel.* Never would nor could have doubted, had you once told me as much, Mr. Gilbert.

" *Widow.* There was the thing, Mr. Gilbert,—you know it was you that was to speak, if you thought of her.

" *Gilb.* Do not you remember the rose and the shamrock?

" *Widow.* Oh, she does well enough, and that's what her heart was living upon, till I killed the hope.

" *Gilb.* You!—killed the hope!—I thought you were my friend.

" *Widow.* And so I am, and was,—but when you did not speak.

" *Gilb.* If I had not loved her so well, I might have been able, perhaps, to have said more.

" *Widow.* Then that's enough.—Mabel mayourneen wear the rose he gave you now. I'll let you—and see it's fresh enough. She put it in water—oh! she had hope still!

" *Mabel.* And was not I right to trust him, mother?

" *Gilb.* Mabel, if I don't do my best to make you happy all my days, I deserve to be—that's all!—but I'm going to tell you about the new inn. That's what I have been about ever since, and I'm to have it for sixty guineas.

*Enter Owen, rubbing his hands.*

" *Owen.* You see, mother, I was right about Gilbert and Mabel. But Mr. Hope and the band is gone up to the castle. Come, come! time to be off!—no delay!—Gilbert, Mabel, off with you. (*He pushes them off.*) And glad enough ye are to go together. Mother, dear, here's your bonnet and the cloak,—here, round ye throw!—That's it, take my arm!—(*Widow stumbles as he pulls her on.*) Oh, I'm putting you past your speed, mother.

" *Widow.* No, no.—No fear in life for the mother that has the support of such a son." (p. 360—362.)

We must omit all further remarks we might be disposed to make, excepting upon one or two inelegancies which are exceedingly striking: for instance—Lady Courtington, a high-bred countess, invites Mr. Onslow "to eat a bit of mutton with her in a family way;" and her daughter Juliana, after hearing of the accident of St. Albans, observes, that she does not believe it, for "she dares say it is all lies." This defect originates in a want of care, which is observable in various parts of the volume.

We do not recollect to have seen any specimens of Miss Edgeworth's talent for poetry, before those to be found in these dramas, which only consist of two or three songs, and they are of no great originality or beauty: the following is the best, which, we are informed in a note, has been set to music by Webbe.

" Sleep, mother, sleep! in slumber blest,

It joys my heart to see thee rest.

Unfelt in sleep, thy load of sorrow,

Breathe free and thoughtless of to-morrow;

And long, and light, thy slumbers last,  
In happy dreams forget the past.  
Sleep, mother, sleep! thy slumber's blest,  
It joys my heart to see thee rest.

" Many's the night she wak'd for me,  
To nurse my helpless infancy:  
While cradled on her patient arm,  
She hush'd me with the mother's charm.  
Sleep, mother, sleep! thy slumber's blest.  
It joys my heart to see thee rest.

" And be it mine to sooth thy age,  
With tender care thy grief assuage.  
This hope is left to poorest poor,  
And richest child can do no more.  
Sleep, mother, sleep! thy slumber's blest,  
It joys my heart to see thee rest." (p. 333—334.)

## BIBLIOTHECA ANTIQUA.

" I study to bring forth some acceptable worke; not striving to shewe any rare inuention that passeth a meane man's capacitie, but utter and reuiue matter of some moment, knowne and talked of long ago, yet ouer-long hath been buried and as it seemeth laid dead, for anie fruite it hath shewed in the memory of man."—*Churchyard's Sparke of Friendship, to Sir W. Raleigh.*

ART. IX.—*The First Foure Bookes of Virgil's Æneis; Translated into English Heroicall Verse, by Richard Stanyhurst: with other Poeticall Devises thereto annexed. At London, imprinted by Henrie Bynneman, dwelling in Thames-streate, neare vnto Baynarde's Castell. Anno Domini 1583. small 8vo. pp. 120.*

WHAT the author means by "English heriocall verse," appears from his work to be English hexameters, which at that time were coming into fashion, from the examples afforded by Edmund Spenser and his "special friend" Gabriel Harvey, who, in 1580, jointly published several prose letters, containing specimens of what was there termed "the English reformed versifying." No doubt the authority of Roger Ascham, in his "Schoolmaster," which went through many editions between 1545 and 1589, had great influence in promoting this innovation, which at first, like most others, was ridiculed and condemned. Before we enter upon our review we will preface it by a quotation from

the work of that man who, in an age of scholarship, has often obtained the epithet of most learned. His words are the following :—"This matter maketh me gladly remember my sweet time spent at Cambridge, and the pleasant talk which I had oft with Mr. Cheke and Mr. Watson of this fault, not only in the Latin Poets, but also in our new English rhimers at this day. They wished as Virgil and Horace were not wedded to follow the faults of former fathers, (a shrewd marriage in greater matters), but by right imitation of the perfect Grecians, had brought poetry to perfectness also in the Latin tongue; that we Englishmen likewise would acknowledge and understand rightfully our rude beggarly rhyming, brought first into Italy by Goths and Huns, when all good verses, and all good learning too, were destroyed by them; and after carried into France and Germany, and at last received into England by men of excellent wit indeed, but of small learning and less judgement in that behalf.

"But now, when men know the difference, and have the examples both of the best and of the worst, surely to follow rather the Goths in rhiming, than the Greeks in true versifying, were even to eat acorns with swine, when we may freely eat wheat bread among men. Indeed Chaucer, Thomas Norton of Bristol, my Lord of Surry, Mr. Wiat, Thomas Phaer, and other gentlemen in translating Ovid, Pelengenius and Seneca, have gone as far to their great praise as the copy they followed would carry them. But if such good wits and forward diligence had been directed to follow the best examples, and not have been carried by time and custom to content themselves with that barbarous and rude rhiming, among their other worthy praises which they have justly deserved, this had not been the least; to be counted among men of learning and skill, more like unto the Grecians than unto the Gothians, in handling of their verse.

"Indeed our English tongue, having in use chiefly words of one syllable, which commonly be long, doth not well receive the nature of *Carmen heroicum*: because Dactylus, the aptest foot for that verse, containing one long and two short, is seldom therefore found in English, and doth also rather stumble than stand upon monosyllables. \* \* \* And though *Carmen hexametrum* doth rather trot and hobble, than run smoothly in our English tongue, yet I am sure our English tongue will receive *Carmen Iambicum* as naturally as the Greek or Latin. But for ignorance men cannot like,

and for idleness men will not labour to come to any perfectness at all. \* \* \* This misliking of rhiming beginneth not now of any new fangle singularity, but hath been long misliked of many, and that of men of greatest learning and deepest judgment. And such that defend it do either so lack of knowledge what is best, or else of very envy that any should perform that in learning, whereunto they (as I said before) either for ignorance cannot, or for idleness will not labour to attain unto."

Ascham's general censure is of rhyme, and while praising the Latin measures he admits that hexameter verse is the least applicable to, and graceful in English. Of this opinion was the notorious and often-quoted Thomas Nash, who has this passage in opposition to the new system of his antagonist Gabriel Harvey:—"The hexameter verse I grant to be a gentleman of an ancient house, (so is many an English beggar), yet this clime of ours he cannot thrive in; he goes twitching and hopping in our language, like a man running upon quagmires, up hill in one syllable and down the dale in another, retaining no part of that stately smooth gait which he vaunts himself with amongst the Greeks and Latins." The author, against whom this passage is directed, in his "Foure Letters and certaine Sonets," &c. 1592, claims to be considered the first practiser of English hexameters, and he seems not a little proud of the title. "If I never deserve any better remembrance, let me rather be epitaphed *the Inventor of the English Hexameter*, whom learned Mr. Stanihurst in his *Virgil*, and excellent Sir Philip Sidney disdained not to follow in his *Arcadia*." Probably this assumption was just, as there is nothing of the kind in any work previous to the publication of Letters of Spenser and Harvey in 1580, wherein the former tells the latter,—“I like your hexameters so well, that I do enure my pen sometimes in that kind.” They had several followers, two of whom are mentioned above by Gabriel Harvey. A third was a voluminous but dull hexameter poet named Abraham Fraunce. Having thus given some account of the introduction of this “English reformed versifying” into our language, we will proceed to the specimen of it upon our table.

Richard Stanyhurst was by birth an Irishman, and received the earlier part of his education at Dublin, under Peter White: in 1563 he was admitted of University College, Oxford, where he took his degree, and afterwards studied the law at Furnival's Inn and Lincoln's Inn. He



married the daughter of Sir Christopher Barnewell, *knt.*; she died at Knightsbridge, in child-bed, on the 26th Aug. 1579, at the age of nineteen. Mr. Chalmers, in his new Biographical Dictionary, is not more correct than usual in his account of Stanyhurst: he states that the wife died abroad, but if he had troubled himself to look at the works of his author he would have seen an epitaph, stating directly the contrary: he commits other blunders from his extreme reluctance to do more than follow in the track where others have preceded him. In what year Stanyhurst went abroad is not known; he there entered into holy orders, and was made chaplain at Brussels to the then governor of the Spanish Netherlands, Archduke Albert. Probably before this event he had studied at the University of Leyden, from whence he dates the prefatory matter to his translation of Virgil, (30th June, 1582); and from an address of the printer to the reader, it appears that the author was abroad when it was published. Ritson is of opinion that it was first printed at Leyden, but there does not seem any sufficient authority for this conjecture. Stanyhurst died at Brussels in 1618, having in the course of his life published many works besides that under review; they are chiefly in Latin, and theological; one only is in English, and it is entitled "The Principles of the Catholic Religion;" for it seems that though the author had been educated a Protestant, he early changed his faith for that of the Romish Church.

He was nobly allied: the dedication of his Virgil is "to the Right Honourable, my very loving Brother the Lord Baron of Dunsanye" in Ireland; and he has a short piece at the end of the volume upon the death of his "most dear Cousin the Lord Baron of Louth, who was traitorously murdered by Mackmaughoun, an Irish Rebel, about the year 1577."

Of the character of Stanyhurst, particularly as a poet, the reader will be able to judge with tolerable correctness when he has concluded the present article; by some of his contemporaries he was held in no mean estimation. Camden, whose praise alone is enough to ensure immortality, calls our author *Eruditissimus ille nobilis Richardus Stanihurstus*; and his learning and skill in the composition of Latin, his works sufficiently exemplify. The scurrilous and satirical Nash, in his Apology of Pierce Pennilesse, 1593, while he abuses the unfortunate "lumbring, boistrous, wallowing measure," chosen by Stanyhurst, admits

that he was a learned man. Gabriel Harvey applauds his Virgil, but his testimony is not disinterested, as he would naturally be disposed to recommend a book written upon his own system. Pultenham, in his "Arte of English Poesie," 1589, after praising the laudable attempts of those who had endeavoured to bring into use the Latin measures, states, that Stanyhurst has performed his task "not uncommendably;" though he afterwards takes occasion, and reasonably, to censure him for the "ill-shapen sound of many of his wordes *pollisillable*, and also his copulation of *monosillables* supplying the quantitie of *trissillable* to his intent."

In order to explain the plan upon which the author proceeds, and some of the rules by which he governs himself, it will be necessary for us to insert portions of the dedicatory epistle, and the address to the reader, in which the explanatory matter is included. He begins rather presumptuously, by terming Ennius, Horace, Juvenal, Persius, and others, "a rabblement of cheate Poets," whose "doings are, for favour of antiquitie, rather to be patiently allowed, than highly regarded;" giving the palm among the Latins to Virgil and Ovid. He observes, that his attempt "will be met by two sorts of carpers—the one utterly ignorant, the other meanly lettered;" and then proceeds thus:—

"The ignorant wil imagine that the passage was nothing craggy, in as much as *M. Phaer* hath broken the ice before mee: The meaner clearkes wil suppose my trauaile in these heroicall verses to carrie no greate difficultie, in that it laye in my choice to make what word I woulde short or long, hauing no English writer before me in this kinde of poetrie, wyth whose square I should leauell my syllables." He argues that they are both "altogither in a wrong boxe." "And in good sooth," he continues, "although the gentleman" (*i. e.* Phaer) "hath translated *Virgil* into Englishe rythme with such surpassing excellencie, as very few (in my conceit) for pickte and loftie words can bourd him, none, I am wel assured, ouergoe him: yet he hath rather doubled than defaleckt ought of my paines, by reason that in conferring his translation with mine, I was forced to weede out from my verses such choise words as were forestalled by him, vnlesse they were so feeling, as others could not counteruaile their signification."

He then points out some instances of mis-translation, and in allusion to Ovid's *Metamorphosis*, which he says "in some places rather craves a construction than a translation," he promises a work "to unlace those mysteries," which work he must necessarily be "many years breeding." We do not find that he was ever delivered of this great under-

taking : perhaps the little success of his Virgil, (for it does appear to have been more than once printed in England) did not encourage him even to finish that, much less to make any new effort of a similar kind. He goes on as follows :—

“ Now to come to them that gesse my trauaile to be easie, by reason of the libertie I had in English words (for as I cannot divine upon such bookes, that happily rouke in Student's Mews, so I truste, I offer no man iniurie, if I assume to my self the maidenhead of all works, that have been before this time in print, to my knowlege, divulged in this kind of verse) I will not greatly wrangle with them therein: yet this much they are to consider, that as the first applying of a word may ease me in the first place, so perhaps when I am occasioned to vse the selfe same word elsewhere, I may be as much hindered, as at the beginning I was furthered. For example: In the first verse of Virgil, I make *season* long, in an other place it wil steede me per case more, if I made it short: and yet I am now tyed to vse it as *lōg*. So that the advantage that way is not very great. But as for the generall facilitie, this much I dare warrant yong beginners, that when they shal have some firme footing in this kinde of poetrie, which by a little paineful exercise may be purchased, they shall finde as easie a veine in the English, as in the Latine verses, yea, and much more easie, than in the *English rithmes*. Touching mine owne triall, this much I will discover. The three first bookes I translated by starts, as my leasure and pleasure would serue me. In the fourth booke I did taske my selfe, and pursued the matter somewhat hotely. *M. Phaer* tooke to the making of that booke fifteen dayes: I huddled up mine in ten. Wherein I couet no praise, but rather craue pardon.”

He next attempts, not with the same success as Ascham, to ridicule the use of rhimes; his humour is as heavy as his verse: he complains, that in his day there were diuerse skauingers of drafftie poetrie that basted their papers with smearie larde sauouring altogether of the frying pan,” and enters into an examination of some of the bad or foolish rhimes, made use of by them, enveighing against them thus :—

“ Have not these men made a faire speake? if they had put in *Mightie Ioue*, and *Gods* in the plurall number, and *Venus* with *Cupide the blinde Boye*, all had been in the nicke, the rithme had bin of a right stāp. For a few such stitches botch up our new fashion makers. Prouided notwithstanding alwayes that *Artaxerxes*, albeit he be a spurgallde, being so much galloped, be placed in the dedicatoire epistle, receiving a cuppe of water of a swaine, or else it is not worth a beane.\* Good God, what a fry of such *wooden*

\* If we recollect, rightly one of Greene's pamphlets (the Spanish *Mataguerado*) has this allusion in the dedication.

rythmours, doth swarme in Stationers' shops, who never instructed in anie Grammar Schoole, nor attayning to the parings of the Latine or Greeke tongue, yet like blinde bayards rush on forwarde, fostering their vaine conceits with such overweening sillie follies, as they recke not to bee condemned, of the learned for ignorant, so they be commended of the ignorant for learned. The readiest way therefore to flap these droanes from the sweete senting hives of *Poetrie*, is for the learned to applye them selves wholly (if they be delighted with that veine) to the true making of verses in such wise as the *Greekes* and *Latines*, the fathers of knowledge have done; and to leaue these doltishe coistrels their rude rythming and bal-ducketome ballads."

The address "to the learned reader," follows the dedication to the author's brother. It opens with this paragraph.

"In the obseruation of quantities of syllables, some haply will be so stiffly tyed to the ordinances of the Latines, as what shall seeme to swarue frō their maxims, they wil not stick to score vp for errors. In whiche resolution, such curious *Priscianists* do attribute greater prerogative to the Latine tongue than reason will affourde, and lesse libertie to our language, than nature may permit. For in as much as the Latines have not beene authors of these verses, but traced in the steppes of the Greekes, why should we with the strings of the Latine rules crampe our tongue, more than the Latines do fetter their speech, as it were, with the chains of the Greeke precepts. Also that nature will not permit vs to fashion our wordes in all points correspondent to the Latines, may easily appeare in such termes as we borrow of them."

He takes some pains to prove that words derived from the Latin, have not the same quantities in English; adducing several examples, which it is not necessary here to insert, and referring to the authority of Gabriel Harvey in his Familiar Letters to Spenser. He denies that Cicero's rule of accentuation can have any application to English, and insists, that in the following words, the accent is upon the first syllable;—"secundarie, ordinarie, matrimonie, patri-monie, planetarie, imperative, cosmographie, orthographie." It is clear, however, that he is wrong, according to modern practice, with regard to the three last; and this is one reason why Latin measures cannot be adopted with permanent success in English, or indeed, in any modern language, unless some fixed principle be adopted as to accents, which, more especially of late years, have been constantly varying, according to the admission of most writers upon language. In English, it is impossible that position should form any rule, and accent, therefore, is the only guide, which is

itself erring and uncertain. In reading the extracts of the poetical part of the work before us, the reader must not fail to bear in mind, that since the time of Stanyhurst, the pronunciation of many words has almost entirely changed, we mean, as far as the accent is concerned; and not to attend to this observation, would make the lines read much more uncouthly than they really deserve to be considered. In the conclusion of his preface, he declares—

“ For my parte I purpose not to beate on every childish tittle, that concerneth *Prosodia*, neither do I vndertake to chalke out any lines or rules to others, but to lay downe to the reader his view the course I tooke in this my trauell.” He then enters into particulars, and winds up with a prosody he had made for himself, “touching the termination of syllables, squaring somewhat from the Latine.”

Having concluded our extracts from the introductory matter, we shall now insert some specimens of the manner in which Stanyhurst accomplished his own purposes: he opens the *Æneid* with the spurious lines found in some editions, and in his translation of them employs the word *garboils*, which offended the nice taste of our early critic and satirist, Bishop Hall, who laughs at the endeavour to bring rude and unruly English into the fine measures of the ancients. He does this very happily as our readers will see.

“ Another scornes the home-spun thread of rhimes,  
 Matcht with the lofty feet of elder times:  
 Give me the number'd verse that Virgil sung,  
 And Virgil's self shall speak the English tongue.  
 Manhood and garboils chaunt with changed feet,  
 And headstrong dactyls making music meet.  
 The nimble dactyl striving to out-go  
 The drawling spondees pacing it below.  
 The lingring spondees labouring to delay  
 The breathless dactyls with a sudden stay.  
 Who ever saw a colt wanton and wild  
 Yok'd with a slow-foot ox on fallow field,  
 Can right areed how handsomely besets  
 Dull spondees with the English dactylets,  
 If Jove speak English in a thundering cloud,  
 Thwack thwack and ruff raff, roars he out a loud,  
 Fie on the forged mint that did create  
 New coin of words neuer articulate.” (B. I. sat. 6.)

Our earliest specimen of Stanyhurst's translation of Virgil, is taken from the first book; it is a part of the dialogue between Venus and her son.



" Heere *Venus* embarrassing his tale, thus sweetlye replied.  
 What wight thart, doubtlesse thee gods all greatlye doe tender  
 Thy state, neere *Tyrian* citty so lucklye to iumblye.  
 Hence take thy passage, to the Queene's court princelye be trudg-  
 ing.

Theare thy coompanions with battred navye be landed,  
 With flaws crusht ruffling, with north blast canuased hurring.  
 Thus stand thy recknings, unless me myne augurye faileth.  
 Marck loa, se wel yoonder swans twelve in company flushing,  
 And the skytop percing, en chast with a murtherus eagle,  
 Swift doe fle too landward, on ground al prest to be seazed.  
 As theese birds seazed, their wyngs with iolitye flapping,  
 Sweep the skye, with gladnes their creaking harmonye gagling,  
 Eu'n so thy companions, er now with saulftye be shoared,  
 Or, voyd of al danger, their ships are grappled at anchor.  
 Speedelye bee packing, keep on hardly the playne beaten highway.

" This sayd, she turned with rose color heaunlye beglittered.  
 Her locks like *Nector* perfumes sweete melloe relinguisht.  
 Her trayne syde flagging like wide spread canopye trayled.  
 Her whisk shew'd Deity, hee finding his moothe, in anger  
 Chauffing, thee fugitive with theese woords sharplye reprooved.  
 " What do ye meane (moothe) with an elf show vainlye thus often  
 Your soon too iuggle? why our hands both claspe we not  
 hardly?

Why do we not plainly good speeches mutual vtter?"  
 T'ward citty traauiling thus he blames her forgerie masked  
 But *Venus* enshrowds theym with a thick fog palpabil ayrye,  
 Vnseen of eache person by sleight inuisible armed:  
 Least soom their passadge with curius article hindring  
 Would learne whence they traauyl'd? to what coast are they re-  
 paying?

She to her loftye *Paphos* with gladnesse merrye returneth:  
 Wheare stands her temple with an hundred consecrat altars;  
 Smoaking with the incense; the low pavement senceth of herb."

Such lines as these will not bear scanning very accurately, and indeed, with all the allowance that can be made for changes in accent, and other alterations, it is impossible to read them with any pleasure: all are not, however, equally ill constructed; and they shew that if due skill and pains were used, the English language is not so unfit for the purpose. Puttenham, a writer we before cited, objects that our *Saxon* monosyllables prevent it, but of late years, it is well known, that in the German language, which we fancy has quite as much of the *Saxon* in it, Professor Voss has completely succeeded in translating Homer, Virgil, and Horace, into the original measures.

Why then might not the same be done in English, provided certain rules could be laid down and constantly observed.

In the foregoing quotation, there are several ludicrous inelegancies; such as where Venus orders Æneas to "be trudging" and to "be packing;" "her whisk shewed deity," is a droll translation of *vera incessu patuit Dea*, but it is not our purpose to dwell upon the accuracy of Stanyhurst's translation. Describing the flight from Troy in the second book he says laughably enough, though with extreme gravity,

" My father on shoulders I set, my yoong lad Jülus  
I led with my right hand; tripping with pit pat unequal  
My wife comes after, through cross blind alley we jumble," &c.

and in the next book he calls Polyphemus

" A fowle fog monster, greate swad, deprived of eyesight;  
His fists and stalcking are propt with trunk of pyntree."

Shortly afterwards, describing the disappointment of the monster he adds,

" But when he considered, that we prevented his handling  
And that from foloing our ships thee fluds hye revockt him,  
Loud the lowbie brayed with belling monstrous eccho:  
The water he shaketh, with his outcryes Italie trembleth,  
And with a thick thundering thee fyerde forge *Actna* re-  
bounded.

Then runs from mountayns and woods thee rownsinal helswarne  
Of Cyclopan ludens to the shoars in coompanie clustring.  
Far we see them distaunt, us grimly and vainly beholding,  
Up to the sky reatching, thee breatherne swish swash of *Actna*."

It is fit that we should supply a specimen from the fourth book, because Stanyhurst states that he "huddled up" his translation of it in ten days. The subsequent passage is from the speech of Dido, when she finds herself deserted by Æneas, who had taken to his ships.

" The next day following lustring *Aurora* lay shytring,  
Her saffron'd mattresse leauing to her bediello *Tithon*.  
Thee Queene, when the daylight his shining brightnes affurded,  
Peeps from loftie beacons, and sayling nauie beholdeth.  
Thee stronds and the hauens of vessels emptie she marketh.  
Thrise, nay she foure seasons on faire brest mightily bouncing,  
And her heare out rooting yellow: God *Juppeter*, oh Lord:  
Quod she, shal he escape thus? shal a stranger give me the clam-  
pam?

With such departure my regal seignorie frumping?  
 Shal not al our subiects pursu with clamorus hu crie?  
 With my fleete hoat foloing shal not their nauie be burned?  
 On men; alarme; firebrands se ye take; sails hoise; row ye  
 swiftly:  
 What chat I foole? What place me doth hold? what phrenzie me  
 witcheth?

ô forlorne *Dido*, now now wrawd destiny grubs the.  
 This spite should be plied, when thou thy auctoritie yeildedst.  
 Marck the faith and kindnesse, that he shews, who is soothly  
 reported,  
 Too carry his relicques and countrey domestical house gods,  
 And to clap on shoulders his bedred graueporer old sire  
 Could not I with my power both have hackt and minced eke inch-  
 meale

Thee croystrels carcasse, next in the sea deeply to drench it?"

*Dido*, "on faire breast mightily bouncing," is as burlesque as any thing Cotton published as his *Travesty*, and the four lines immediately succeding are, if possible, more ludicrous. We give the above quotations, not because they contain any thing in themselves admirable, but because the work is exceedingly rare,\* and the effort exceedingly curious, and not by any means useless, as forming an epoch in the progress of our language. Very few persons have repeated the experiment since the reign of Queen Elizabeth: in 1738 two of the *Eclogues* of Virgil, in English hexameters, were published, but they were by no means happy, and no author's name was affixed. The only other attempt in hexameters, of which we are aware, was in a monthly publication about twelve years ago. *Sapphics* and other Latin lyrical measures have not unfrequently been employed by a celebrated Poet of our own day.

Stanyhurst does not confine himself to what he calls "English heroics," but he has added to the translation of the four books of Virgil smaller pieces from the *Psalms*, from Sir Thomas More's *Epigrams*, and from original sources, in which he exhibits specimens of his skill in a variety of measures; the following "English *Asclepiad* verse" may be quoted as better than the rest—

"When that I called with an humble outcrye,  
 Thee God of Justice, meriting my saultye,  
 In many dangers my weake hart upholding,  
 Swiftlye did heare me.

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\* A copy of it was sold by Mr. Evans of Pall Mall, by auction, about three months ago, for the sum of 9l. 15s.

This, indeed, is the sort of verse that runs best, and is most easily written in English. Mr. Southey's pieces are principally in it. The author was so fond of it that he has added an original prayer to the Trinity. It is to be remarked, and the extract above will exemplify what we say, that whenever the author desires to lengthen the words *the, me, be*, and others, he does so by adding a vowel; consonants are freely employed for the same purpose whenever he wished to mark or to alter (for he has not scrupled to do even that) the accentuation. There is an Hexameter Epitaph upon a young "Lord Gerald, Fitzgerald, of Offalye," which contains four of the most correct and pleasing lines Stanyhurst has written.

"O that I thy praises could wel decipher in order,  
Like Homer or Virgil, or Geffray Chaucer in English:  
Then would thy Stanyhurst in pen be liberal holden,  
Thee poet is barrayn; for praise rich matter is offred."

With reference to the translation of the first four books of the *Æneid*, our readers, we apprehend, will be inclined to put an affirmative upon the first, and a negative upon the last portion of the last line above quoted.

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ART. X.—*The Actor's Remonstrance, or Complaint for the silencing of their profession and banishment from their severall Play-houses. In which is fully set downe their grievances for the restraint: especially since Stage-Playes only, of all publicke recreations are prohibited; the exercise at the Beares Colledge, and the motions of Puppets, being still in force and vigour. As it was presented in the names and behalves of all our London Comedians, &c.* Printed for Edw. Nickson, Januar. 24, 1643.

THIS is a very curious pamphlet, and what is singular is, that it has escaped the industrious—we might say indefatigable researches of all the commentators upon Shakespeare who have entered into the history of the stage before and after his time. "The laborious historian of the stage," as Mr. Malone is called, seems never to have heard of it. It is to be found in the Royal Collection of Pamphlets in the British Museum, vol. xci. We shall insert a few extracts from it, for the purpose of rescuing it from the dusty oblivion to which it has been long consigned.

At the time it was published, the Puritans had acquired a complete ascendancy: the theatres had been for some

years entirely closed, and the actors, and others whose livelihood depended solely upon the stage, were in a state of starvation : the existing authorities would listen to none of their remonstrances ; and the small tract of which we are now treating is addressed to " Apollo and the nine Heliconian Sisters at the top of Parnassus," and several of the passages contain sly hits at " the pious," by whom they had been driven from their ancient seats and dominions. The Remonstrance opens with a statement of the distresses of the tragedians, comedians, &c. and then proceeds in these terms :—

" First, it is not unknowne to all the audience that have frequented the private houses of *Black-Friers*, the *Cock Pit*, and *Salisbury-Court*, without austerity, we have purged our stages from all obscene and scarrilous jests, such as might either be guilty of corrupting the manners, or defaming the persons of any men of note in the City or Kingdome ; that wee have endeavoured as much as in us lies, to instruct one another in the true and genuine Art of acting, to repress bawling and railing, formerly in great request, and for to suite our language and action to the more gentle and naturall garbe of the times ; that wee have left off on our own parts, and so have commanded our servants, to forget that ancient custome, which formerly rendered men of our quality infamous, namely, the inveigling in young Gentlemen, Merchants, Factors, and Prentizes, to to spend their patrimonies and Masters estates upon us and our Harlots in Tavernes ; we have cleane and quite given over the borrowing money at first sight of punie gallants, or praying their swords, belts, and beavers, so to invite them to bestow them upon us ; and to our praise bee it spoken, we were for the most part very well reformed, few of us keeping, or being rather kept by our Mistresses, betooke ourselves wholly to our wives ; observing the matrimonial vow of chastity, yet for all these conformities and reformations, wee were by authority (to which wee in all humility submit) restrained from the practice of our Profession ; that Profession which had before maintained us in comely and convenient equipage ; some of us by it meerey being inabled to keepe horses (though not w——), are now condemned to a perpetuall, at least a very long temporary silence, and wee left to live upon our shifts, or the expence of our former gettings, to the great impoverishment and utter undoing of our selves, wives, children, and dependents."

It goes on to complain, that the Bear-garden, with all its cruelty, beastliness, and grossness, was allowed, as well as puppet-shows, which were not worth as much as the music between the acts of regular plays. Having men-



tioned the names of some of these, and dismissed them, we have the following paragraphs.

"For our selves, such as were sharers, are so impoverished, that were it not for some slender helps afforded us in this time of calamitie, by our former providence, we might be enforced to act our Trajedies; our hired men are dispersed, some turned souldiers and Trumpetters, others destined to meaner courses, or depending upon us whom in courtesie wee cannot see want, for old acquaintance sakes," &c. "Our Fooles, who had wont to allure and excite laughter with their very countenances, at their first appearance on the stage (hard shifts are better than none) are enforced, some at least of them to maintaine themselves by vertue of their bables. Our boyes, ere wee shall have libertie to act againe, will be growne out of use like crackt organ-pipes, and have faces as old as our flags," &c.

"Our Musike that was held so delectable and precious, that they scorned to come to a Taverne under twentie shillings salary for two houres, now wander with their instruments under their cloaks, I mean such as have any, unto all houses of good fellowship, saluting every roome where there is company, with *will you have any musike, Gentlemen?*" &c.

"For some of our ablest ordinarie Poets, in stead of their annual stipends and beneficial second-dayes, being for inere necessitie compelled to get a living by writing contemptible penny pamphlets, in which they have not so much as poetical licence to use any attribute of their profession; but that of *Qui libet audendi?* and faining miraculous stories, and relations of unheard battels. Nay, it is to be feared, that shortly some of them, (if they have not been enforced to do it already), will be incited to enter themselves in *Martin Parker's Societie*, and write ballads. And what a shame this is, great *Phæbus*, and you, sacred Sisters; for your owne priests thus to be degraded of their ancient dignities. Be your selves righteous Judges, when those who formerly have sung with such elegance the acts of Kings and Potentates, charming, like *Orpheus*, the dull and brutish multitude, scarce a degree above stones and forrests, into admiration, though not into understanding with their divine raptures, shall be by that tyrant Necessitie reduced to such abject exigents, wandring like grand-children of old *Erra Paters*, those learned Almanack-makers, without any Mæcenas to cherish their loftie conceptions, prostituted by the mis-fortune of our silence, to inexplicable miseries, having no heavenly Castalian Sack to actuate and inform their spirits almost confounded with stupiditie and coldness, by their frequent drinking (and glad too they can get it) of fulsome Ale, and heretical Beere, as their usuall beverage."

In the conclusion is a prayer, in which the actors, &c. promise in future "never to admit into their sixpenny-rooms" any bad company, nor to allow the smoking of

tobacco, not even "in the three-penny galleries," and that no player shall be allowed in future to speake his part in a tone, "as if he did it in derision of some of the pious."

It may be reasonably doubted whether this Remonstrance was calculated, or intended to produce any benefit, but to the author. No printer's license is affixed to it.

J. P. C.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### EDUCATION.

ART. 11.—*The English Student's Companion; or a Series of Rules and Exercises to facilitate the Composing of the English Language with ease and elegance, and to illustrate the English Grammar. By M. LAISNE, Professor of Languages.* 12mo. pp. 120. London, published by the Author, 1817.

*The Key to the English Student's Companion, intended to serve as Exercises to the French Classes already advanced, with the help of the Comparative View of the English and French Languages. By the same.* 12mo. pp. 72. 1817.

*A Comparative View of the English and Latin Languages, intended to establish an easy and methodical plan for the acquirement of both. By the same.* 12mo. pp. 32. 1817.

THE purpose of the first of these publications is sufficiently explained in the title. In recommendation of the second, the author says, that no grammarian has hitherto given a competent book of exercises for the use of such as are, in some degree, advanced in the study of the French language; but we do not think it would be difficult to shew, by mere reference to some of our late reviews, that such competent books have been supplied, and which have received the stamp of public approbation. We have, however, no objection that another work, cheap in the form, methodical in the arrangement, and convenient in the application, should be contributed by M. Laisné. The author conceives that this little work, with the Comparative View which he has also published, will present an easy and agreeable means of obtaining the knowledge of both the English and French languages; and so far, we trust, his readers will not be disappointed.

The writer has not restricted himself in the last of these publications to government and concord; but he lays down the principle and the rule of construction in the Latin, which he endeavours to establish in the progress of the work.

## LAW.

ART. 12.—*A Charge to the Grand Jury at the Quarter Sessions of the Peace for the County of Lancaster, held by adjournment at Preston, on the 16th of January, 1817. By W. D. EVANS, Esq. the Chairman.* 8vo. pp. 20. Manchester, Harrop, 1817.

*Address of W. D. Evans, Esq. at the New Bayley Court-house, Sal-ford, on discharging the Prisoners who were apprehended on account of an illegal assembly at Manchester, on the 10th of March, 1817.* 8vo. pp. 7. Manchester, Harrop, 1817.

THE charge, Mr. Evans tells us, was occasioned by the number of inflammatory publications that had been circulated with the most persevering industry, and by many other manifestations of a widely-extended system of disloyalty and sedition. A letter from eight magistrates is subjoined, who requested the author to publish, in a separate form, his Charge, with the view to its general publicity. The opinion of this worthy Chairman of the Bench of Justices is founded on feelings of alarm, which have been more strongly awakened in the county with which he is particularly conversant, than in other parts of the kingdom.

"I am not ignorant," he says, "that, in convening meetings for the attainment of the objects professed by those, whose conduct is at present the subject of observation, there is a general exhortation to peaceable demeanour.

"But when I mark the temper and character of the proceedings which have taken place, and of the writings which have been disseminated, I cannot but recognize the attempt to inculcate a spirit of resistance to the authority of the law. In the speeches reported to have been made by a person peculiarly active in meetings for the redress of imputed grievances, I find it stated, that the resort to physical force should be avoided, if the object can otherwise be attained; plainly intimating the propriety of resorting to such force, in the opposite alternative; and the disturbances which accompanied the holding of a recent meeting at the metropolis, have been only rejected by some of the most active promoters of that meeting as being premature.

"The persons, who by their proceedings, are attempting to agitate the mind, are not satisfied with the free expression of their own opinions, but endeavour to controul the freedom of others in acting upon an opposite opinion, and, in particular, take upon themselves to censure the conduct of public officers, who, in the fair exercise of their judgment, decline convening meetings, which they have reason to think may be of injurious tendency, and the calling of which forms no part of their legal duty; and the general disinclination shewn by the great majority of those who have any property to preserve, to take part in promoting the spirit of disaffection, is branded as apathy to their interests, and indifference to their welfare and their duty. And in hand-bills very generally circulated, it has

been held forth, that the calls of hunger are so powerful, that an united band, linked in a common cause, from East to West, and from North to South, will be ready to avenge the delay of assenting to their claims, and threaten ruin to those who refuse to engage in their confederacy." (p. 12—13.)

The Address is to fifty-three of the prisoners who remained in custody, on account of the illegal and disgraceful transactions which took place in Manchester on the 10th of March, and it contains very good advice to them.

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#### MEDICINE.

ART. 13.—*An Essay on the Mode by which Constitutional Disease is produced, from the Inoculation of Morbid Poisons.* By CHAS. SALT, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. 8vo. pp. 88. London, Cox and Son, 1817.

THE author of these pages is not satisfied with the account of the effect of morbid poisons from fermentation, nervous sympathy, or the supposition that they remain a long time inert in the inoculated part; and he conceives that these pretended solutions rather increase the difficulty, than afford a satisfactory explanation. The object of Mr. Salt is to ascertain, why such poisons appear to be exempted from the immediate agency of the absorbent system.

"When a morbid poison (he observes) is applied to an abraded surface it has a specific power inherent in it of exciting a new secretory action in the *very contiguous* arteries, by which a poisonous fluid is secreted, which if absorbed from the part, is capable of infecting the individual, in whom it is produced, *directly* by such absorption, and of infecting any other individual *indirectly*—*viz.* by a repetition of this process in the part of his body to which it is applied.

"This process is never immediate, but slow, and is preceded and accompanied by local inflammation.

"The following are the principal reasons which have induced me to offer these opinions.

"1st. Because I am not aware of any satisfactory reason why the absorbents should deviate in these instances from the general law which regulates their actions in a healthy state, and by which, in its usual course, the deposited poison would speedily be removed instead of remaining, as in some cases of syphilis, a whole month without any absorption *apparently* taking place.

"2d. That it appears extraordinary and almost miraculous, that a poison can (as it is said) lie dormant for a very considerable time in an organized part, whereas, adopting a different mode of explanation, it does not lie dormant, but speedily gives an impulse to the contiguous arteries. This impulse, it is true, does not produce immediate inflammation and secretion in these vessels, and it is also true that each poison varies in the length of time required to pro-

duce this effect. But let us endeavour, by analogy, to obviate this apparent difficulty. Suppose a mechanical injury—a bruise for example, has occurred in a part; that part may in many instances remain several days without continued pain or inflammation, and be apparently restored, yet some time afterwards inflammation and a secretion of pus ensue. In incised wounds, the impulse which produces secretion in the contiguous arteries is not sufficiently advanced to produce actual secretion of pus in less than from thirty to sixty hours.

“3d. Because it sometimes happens that out of four persons carefully inoculated from the same pustule, two may have local inflammation and secretion; and the constitutional effects follow; but the remaining two may have neither the one nor the other. The function of the absorbents I cannot believe to be thus inactive and uncertain; but the difficulty vanishes if we admit that the absorption of the deposited poison is harmless.

“Should the explanation, I have ventured to adopt, be completely established by proof, this important inference results; that by preventing the specific suppuratory process, in the contiguous arteries of a part subjected to the inoculation of any poison, the constitutional effects will be invariably prevented, and nothing is to be feared from the absorption of the poison introduced previously to that process having been established.” (p. 3—7.)

Mr. Salt divides under three heads the proofs for the establishment of this theory, in order to shew, that after inoculation simple absorption of the fluid is incapable of producing constitutional disease without the assistance of a local process. That constitutional effects may be prevented by excision or destruction of the contiguous organized structure antecedent to the local process, and—That from general experience where the primary suppuration or secretion goes through its regular process, the constitutional disease, amongst individuals capable of receiving the complaint, may be always expected to follow.

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#### MORALS AND RELIGION.

ART. 14.—*The Evil of Separation from the Church of England, considered in a Series of Letters, addressed chiefly to the Rev. Peter Roe, M.A. Minister of St. Mary's, Kilkenny, &c. Second edition, corrected and much enlarged.* 8vo. pp. 233. London, Seeley, 1817.

THERE is nothing we like better in this epistolary pamphlet than the motto—“In necessariis Unitas, in dubiis Libertas, in omnibus Charitas;” and if its principles were always properly regarded, half the evils of separation from the Church of England, and every other church known to Christianity, would be avoided. This work is published with the especial view to controvert the opinions of Robert



Brown, who, as early as the year 1581, formed a church on the following principles:—

“ ‘The members of it maintained the discipline of the Church of England to be popish and antichristian; they forbad their brethren to join with those of her communion, in any part of *publick worship*; and they renounced religious intercourse with all reformed churches, except such as were of their own model.

“ ‘They considered that every church should be confined within the limits of a single congregation, and its government democratical. The power of admitting or excluding members, and of deciding all controversies, was in the brotherhood. They did not allow the priesthood to be a distinct order, or that it could give a man an indelible character. They declared against all forms of prayer, and any brother had liberty to exhort in their assemblies; and in church discipline they were entirely opposed to every union with the state or civil power. In short, in their view, every society of Christians, or, as they termed it, every church, was a distinct body corporate, possessing in itself, all powers for regulating and governing its members.’ ” (p. xii—xiii.)

The author observes, that the re-appearance of those opinions which had long lain dormant, was hailed as an important discovery at Dublin, about the year 1804; and he laments that many were induced to view them in that light. Whilst they remained stationary in the metropolis, he supposes they did not excite much attention; but he tells us that they soon began to be diffused; industrious agents were engaged in their dissemination; and among other places, alas! Kilkenny—the situation of his own Christian ministry—was visited by them.

The communications in these letters, he remarks, were made at different periods, and under various circumstances, without any previous intercourse between the writers, which he says (drawing a singular conclusion) will satisfactorily account for the “similarity of arguments made use of” in some of them. We should rather have thought, that the difference of time and circumstance, and the deficiency of intercourse between the writers, would have led to a dissimilarity “of arguments made use of in some of them.” If the reader should find the letters not fully explanatory, he is conveniently referred to Fuller’s *Strictures on Sandemanianism*; Milner’s *Church History*; Bishop Hall’s *Works*; Hooker’s *Ecclesiastical Polity*; Newton’s *Apologia*; Cusance’s *Popular Survey of the Reformation*; and the *Christian Observer*, *passim*.

ART. 15.—*Reflections on the Influence of Infidelity and Profaneness upon Public Liberty; being the subject of two Discourses preached at Laura Chapel, Bath, March 9th and 10th, 1817. By the Rev. E. W. GRINFIELD, M.A. Minister of Laura Chapel.* 12mo. pp. 20. London, Hughes and Baynes, 1817.

WE particularly notice this publication, not on account of any extraordinary value in the reflections, although there is enough to

recommend them to the serious reader—but on account of a short appendix, containing hints for the formation of a national library society, in connection with the national society for the education of the poor in the principles of the established church. In these hints it is proposed, that the committee of the national society should form a sub-committee of its members, to supply a catalogue of books for the use of the poor; the theological part of the list to consist of tracts and books circulated by the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge; the remainder to be composed of such useful and entertaining works, as will both improve and amuse the lower orders. It is further suggested, that this general catalogue, so drawn up, should be sent to each of the district school committees, recommending them to use their endeavours to arrange a circulating library of this description in their respective neighbourhoods. There are a variety of other regulations, as to the funds, as to the care and protection under which the libraries are to be placed, and other precautions connected with the success of such undertakings.

#### NOVELS.

ART. 16.—*The Absent Man, a Narrative. Edited by Sir Peter Plaistic, Knight of the Order of the Tower and Sword.* 8vo. pp. 232. London, Baldwin & Co. 1817.

SHOULD we apply the seven sheets of our Review to the merits of this novel, we could not characterize it more aptly than in the four words of the motto, "*Ex nihilo, nihil fit.*"

#### POETRY.

ART. 17.—*Amatory, and other Verses.* By HOWARD FISH. 8vo. pp. 30. London, for Sherwood and Co. 1817.

THERE is one peculiarity about these amatory poems which distinguish them, we believe, from all others, viz. that the author, instead of representing himself as soliciting and winning the smiles of the fair sex, more than hints in several of the pieces devoted to them, that he is fatigued and almost tormented by their pertinacious efforts to gain his favour. This is at least reversing the ordinary course of things, and let it be as it may, Mr. Fish was bound in gallantry to smother the truth a little, and acknowledge, as usual, the legitimate sway of sovereign beauty. This, we apprehend, is the principal feature of originality in his small publication, which he tells us were printed to gratify the importunate requests of friends. At the same time we readily admit, that if not very original the pieces have considerable merit from their playful lightness, and easy, we might say happy versification. These qualities are, however, but a small specimen of a good poem.

We think the amatory pieces the worst of the collection, with the exception of the political epistle with which it commences, which had better have been excluded, or, at all events, postponed, for it gives a more unfavourable impression of the rest than they deserve. The best productions are of a moral cast, and of these we will supply two specimens. The first is an Ode to Mary-le-bone Fields, which will be read with pleasure by all who enter into the joyous recollections of youth. The first verse is the worst; by what Mary-le-bone Fields have given to them the title of *sylvan dales* we know not, unless it be that Mr. Fish thought those words common property of all small poets: "*rapturous* contemplation of the past," is a grossly exaggerated epithet.

- " Haunts of my youth ! ye sylvan dales farewell !  
 Too rich in native luxury to last ;  
 No more with pleasure shall I trace the dell,  
 In rapturous contemplation on the past.
- " Ne'er point to where I rear'd the soaring kite,  
 Till breathless in the race—at length she stood ;  
 Where roll'd the grass with unalloy'd delight,  
 Or gather'd primroses in St. John's Wood.
- " No more across thy golden meads shall stray,—  
 No more shall happy recollection own,  
 Here butter-flowers I cull'd the live-long day,  
 Or rosy daisies, budding and full blown.
- " No more the sedge-grown pond shall mark the place  
 Where once the puny little angler stood ;  
 Watching, with smiling and expectant face,  
 To catch the finny tribes innumerable brood.
- " No, never more !—the busy hand of Art,  
 Which vaunts itself superior to all ;  
 To all the beauties that Nature can impart,  
 Has seal'd thy fatal doom beyond recall.
- " The lofty palace, the imperial square,  
 Now raise their heads where once the acorn grew ;  
 The din of chariots, and the torches glare,  
 Proclaim thy requiem,—dear fields, adieu !" (p. 13—14.)

The next extract is not bad, but the thought is trite enough: there is, besides a grammatical error in the first line of the last verse: the word *me* came so pat in, that perhaps Mr. Fish knowingly transgressed. The accusative case after the verb to be, is one of the commonest blunders committed by persons not in the habit of composition.

- " In early life the world was gay,  
 All nature seem'd eternal May ;

At least, I thought so then:  
Mankind appear'd a happy race,  
Sweet smiles adorn'd each human face—  
How changed, alas! are men!

“ The sun with greater splendour shone,  
The birds sang songs of sweeter tone,  
And pleasure gladden'd all:  
Flora in brighter charms was drest,  
And I, than all, more amply blest—  
But now, how great the fall!

“ Stay! 'tis not men are changed—'tis me—  
With other eyes the world I see;  
That world is still the same:  
Youth is the scene of hope and joy;  
Soon guilt affrights us, pleasures cloy,—  
And then, the world we blame.” (p. 18.)

This piece leads us to notice several others, in which the author deplores, or affects to deplore, disappointments, blighted hopes, &c. in the stale cant of every man whose success does not meet his ideas of his own deserts. On the whole, the production does the author credit; and we regret that he has spent time that might have been better employed, in writing such lines as those “To Laura,” “Oh, lift again,” and others.

ART. 18.—*Poetic Impressions; a Pocket Book, with Scraps and Memorandums, including Washing Day, Ironing Day, &c.* By HENRY LEE. Pp. 187. London, Sherwood and Co. 1817.

THERE are several clever little pieces in this volume, but there are few readers who could wade through a collection of epigrams and light trifles, occupying 187 pages. Epigrams are a *sauce piquante*, that can be taken and enjoyed only a little at a time: two or three are quite sufficient for an afternoon, and however good, more can scarcely be endured: Joe Miller is tedious, when taken up as a book to be read through; though one story after dinner raises a laugh, and aids digestion.

Mr. Lee's tale, called “Dash,” certainly was a work of no great promise; nor does the production before us indicate that he is capable of much more: he is notwithstanding a pleasant writer, and is about upon a par with some of those who scribble the better sort of puns and epigrams in the newspapers: if we mistake not, we recognize in this volume some acquaintances, that we have seen before in more general circulation. Such lumber effusions are not, of course, capable of regular criticism; and we shall therefore submit a few specimens to our readers without further remark. The first is an epigram, about as happy as any of the others dispersed on various pages.

" Once at tea with some Ladies, a Newmarket 'Squire  
 Rose to hand round the toast which was placed at the fire—  
 But the touch burnt his fingers—he stamp'd and he swore,  
 And then quitting his hold, dropt the whole on the floor:  
 All the company titter'd—young Turf cried, elate,  
 ' Well—the *heat* I have gain'd, tho' it seems lost the *plate!*' " (p.8.)

The following is told with a good deal of spirit and cleverness, though the point is old enough; perhaps as old as the use of that part of female dress which forms the point of the story. It has reference to that melancholy day which casts a gloom over the whole week, when the family linen is to be submitted to the operation of soap and water. The miseries of this unhappy day have been very humorously described by Mrs. Barbauld, whose style Mr. Lee has imitated in his "ironing day," and not unhappily.

" Imagine, then, young Sally and her mistress,  
 Up to their elbows soused in suds and business.  
 " ' How, Sal! *two* sheets d'ye want? (said Mrs. Pother)  
 ' Pshaw! *make a shift with one*, and wash the other.'  
 Sally, who's head on finery was dreaming,  
 A curtsy dropt, well pleased, and thankful seeming.  
 'Mid froth and fume she now drudged on in haste,  
 Too anxious e'en a moment's time to waste;  
 All day she rubb'd, yet still kept up her spirits,  
 Her hands and wrists as red as eyes of ferrets!  
 But heedless Sal; nor did she once complain,  
 Till all was wash'd and wrung, or hung to drain.  
 At night, up stairs she march'd—but not to bed,  
 ' *Making a shift*' still running in her head;—  
 To work she went—cut out a shift and sew'd it;  
 Wishing it smart, she frill'd and furbelow'd it.  
 Next morn her mistress chanc'd the shift to see,  
 She scolded—storm'd! —Poor Sal replied, ' Dear me!  
 Have I offended, ma'am? how know your drift?  
 You said I must with one sheet make a *shift*.  
 'Tis done; and with the other, if I'm right,  
 I'll try to make another shift to-night.'  
 ' Zounds, what (exclaim'd the mistress) steal my goods!  
 (Her anger foaming like the hot soap suds)  
 Quick, jade, and fetch the sheet from off your bed,  
 With rug and blanket make a shift instead:  
 I won't with shifty tricks like this agree;  
 Make-shift excuses will not do for me.'  
 (This said, she bounced and bluster'd—toss'd her nose,  
 Her frame and features rumpling like her cloaths)  
 ' Well then, (cried Sal) if thus you scold and flout me,  
 Your place I leave—so *make a shift* without me!' " (p. 54—55.)

Some few serious pieces are interspersed, but, from the author's little talent for that kind of composition, they are nearly as ludicrous as those poems that are designed to make us laugh.



## POLITICS.

ART. 19.—*Four Letters on the English Constitution.* By G. DYER, A.B. formerly of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. Third edition, with additions. 8vo. pp. 190. London, Longman and Co. 1817.

THESE essays, we are told, were first published in a miscellany as letters; they were afterwards republished with some corrections and improvements; and their object has been to ascertain and define the principles of the English constitution. The author is not, like many others, an indiscriminate admirer of that constitution, both in principles and practice. Mr. Dyer is not very sanguine in his hopes of improvement and reform, but he is not, on that account, the less anxious; and while two of these essays are devoted to the different opinions on the English constitution, and to the discussion of its legitimate principles; in the others, its defects are very freely examined, and the best means of restoring it to its purest form, are considered. We extract the following passage from the preface to this third edition, which, we fear, gives too accurate a representation of the present condition of the public mind.

“ It is humiliating to contemplate what has often been the course of events in such a state of things, wherein a few plausible maxims have been mixed up with many depraved principles; how love of ease, under a plea of prudence, insensibly reconciled itself to the yoke of oppression; how self-interest, pleading state-expediency, took theameleon hue of every plant on which it was accustomed to feed; how simplicity and love of truth, taught the fruitlessness of opposition, were lost amid the glitter of distinctions, and accommodations to fashion; how state-policy, mistaking its own shifts and tricks for wisdom, delivered out its cabala for oracles; singularity became a crime, intolerance a virtue; genius and eloquence, from too much modesty, or too little principle, became advocates for imbecility of talent and palpable contradictions; while piety, too credulous, made a duty of subjection; and hypocrisy, growing less scrupulous, did not think it necessary even to wear a mask.” (p. xxi.)

Whatever may be thought of the merits of this work, no man who reads it can doubt of the zeal and integrity of the writer: every thing is “hot from the heart;” and those must have very little warmth in their constitutions whose fervour is not awakened by its perusal.

ART. 20.—*A View of the Nature and Operation of Bank Currency; as connected with the Distresses of the Country.* By W. T. COMBER; Author of “*An Enquiry into the State of National Subsistence.*” 8vo. pp. 54. London, Sherwood, Neely, and Jones, 1817.

It is justly observed by the author, that it is only by viewing our situation in all its bearings and relations, that we can hope to esti-

blish property on a firm basis, and to unite the prosperity of the country with the stability of the government. His object is to controvert the opinion, that the distresses of the country can be remedied by an increase of our circulating medium, as intended by government in the recent proposal for an issue of Exchequer Bills to be applied to that object. The opinion of Mr. Comber is, that there is no want of a medium for circulating commodities, and no deficiency in the commodities themselves; and that the causes of these distresses are found in the obstacles which impede the diffusion of these commodities under the existence of an adequate circulating medium, and of the materials by which that medium may be employed.

## WORKS IN THE PRESS.

### Literary Intelligence, &c.

Mr. T. N. Talfourd, of the Middle Temple, is preparing for publication, a Practical Treatise on the Laws of Toleration and Religious Liberty, as they affect every class of Dissenters from the Church of England, intended to form a compendium of the civil, political, and religious rights of all his Majesty's subjects, as, at present, affected by the profession of religious opinions. With an Appendix, containing the most important statutes on the subject of Toleration, and forms of proceedings by indictment, and before Magistrates for infractions of the Acts protecting worship, and other offences relating to Religion, in 1 vol. 8vo.

The Rev. Ingram Cobbin, A.M. author of the French Preacher, lately published, has in the press in 1 vol. 12mo. Philanthropy and other Poems,

The Rev. Thomas Morell, author of Studies in History, has in the press, an additional volume of that work, which will contain the History of England from its

earliest period to the death of Elizabeth, and which, like the Histories of Greece and Rome, will be published in 8vo. and 12mo.

The concluding volume of the series in which the History of England will be brought down to the present period, will follow as quickly as possible.

Mr. Nicholas will shortly publish in 2 vol. 8vo. the Journal of a Voyage to New Zealand, in company with the Rev. Samuel Marsden, with an account of the state of that country and its productions, the character of its inhabitants, their manners, customs, &c.

Conversations on Botany, illustrated by twenty engravings, in a 12mo. vol. will soon appear.

The second volume of Kirby and Spence's Introduction to Entomology, is nearly ready for publication.

The lovers of Satirical Romance will be gratified to learn, that a very spirited and free translation of a French work, which met with an extensive and

rapid sale on the continent some time back, from the pen of a Lady of eminent literary talent and connection, entitled *The Hero, or the Adventures of a Night*, in 2 vol. is in the press.

Ray's *Proverbs*, elegantly printed in 1 thick vol. 12mo. verbatim from the best edition of 1768, will make its appearance in the course of this month.

Shortly will be published, a *Poetical Epistle to the King of Hayti*, in five cantos, containing,

Advice to Hayti, sent from London,

Lest she, unhappily, be undone.—  
Rules which experience declares,  
Should guide monarchical affairs.  
The arguments of A, B, C,

Discouraging about liberty.—  
How to promote emancipation,  
How to create a mighty nation;  
Of which, we presently display  
The whole paraphernalia.—

What the free negroes ought to do—  
Instructions where to fight a battle,  
How to attack, defeat, pursue,  
And make the Portuguese' heads  
rattle;

Heaven's host, and that of the  
abyss,

Are interested witnesses,—&c. &c.

A new work, in 1 vol. 8vo. will shortly appear, entitled *Authentic Memoirs of the Revolution in France, and of the sufferings of the Royal Family*; deduced chiefly from accounts by eye-witnesses, which will exhibit, besides information from other sources, a combined narrative of details from M. Hue, Clery, Edgeworth, and Madame Royale, now Duchesse D'Angoulême.

Thomas Walter Williams, of the Inner Temple, Esq. is printing a continuation of his compendious *Abstract of all the Public Acts*, on the same scale and plan as the *Acts passed Anno*

1816, which will be published immediately after the close of the present session of parliament.

The Rev. John Evans of Islington has in the press, an *Excursion to Windsor*, interspersed with historical and biographical anecdotes, for the improvement of the rising generation; to which will be annexed, *The Journal of a Trip to Paris*, through Brussels and Waterloo, in the autumn of 1816, by John Evans, jun.

Part Three of Neale's *Illustrated History of Westminster Abbey*, will be published on the 1st of July, crown folio, to correspond with the large paper of Dugdale's *Monasticon*.

*Memoirs and Remains of the late Rev. Charles Buck*, containing copious extracts from his diary and interesting letters to his friends; interspersed with various observations, explanatory and illustrative of his character and works, by J. Styles, D.D.

*Annals of the Fine Arts*: the fourth part of this work, which has been delayed beyond its usual time of publication, in consequence of the death of one of the proprietors, will be published early in June, and the succeeding part as regularly as heretofore.

The Rev. T. F. Dibdin's *Biographical Decameron*, which has been delayed by the great increase of matter, is expected to appear early in July.

Mr. Wm. Phillips, author of the *Outlines of Mineralogy*, will soon publish in a 12mo. volume, *Eight Familiar Lectures on Astronomy*, delivered last winter at Tottenham.

W. Newnham, Esq. has in the press, in a 12mo. volume, a *Tri-*

bute of Sympathy, addressed to Mourners.

The Rev. Wm. Smith, author of the System of Prayer, is printing a Six Weeks Course of Prayers, for the use of families.

The Rev. George Young has in

the press, a History of Whitby, with a statistical survey of the vicinity to the distance of twenty-five miles.

Mr. John Bell has in the press, the Consulting Surgeon, a royal 8vo. volume.

## LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

Mr. George Ogg, of Plymouth, has just published a Lecture, which was read at the Plymouth Institution, on the Prevention and Cure of Dry Rot in Ships of War.

Idwal, and other portions of a Poem, entitled The Cambriad; to which is added, Gryphiadae, Carma Venatorium, in Greek Hexameters, &c. By P. Bayley, Esq. of Merton College, Oxford.

Public Education; consisting of three Tracts, reprinted from the Edinburgh Review, the Classical Journal, and the Pamphleteer; together with the Defence of Public Schools. By the late Dean of Westminster.

The Pamphleteer, No. XVIII. containing; 1. A Vindication of the Political Conduct of General Savary, Duke of Rovigo; written by himself. (*Original and translated exclusively for the Pamphleteer.*) 2. The Source of the Evil; addressed to the United Parliament and the People of Great Britain, on the league formed between the Irish Lay Separatists and the Irish Roman Catholic Bishops, on the measure of Emancipation. By Anglo-Hibernus. (*Original.*) 3. Reform without Innovation, by J. Symmons, Esq. 4. The National Debt in its true Colours. By William Friend, Esq. 5. A Letter to Lord Sidmouth on Public House Licensing. By J. T. Barber Beaumont, Esq. F.A.S. 6. On the State of the Country in December, 1816. By Sir John Sinclair, Bart. 7. Statements respecting the East India College. By the Rev. T. R. Malthus. 8. Speech of Pascoe Grenfell, Esq. M.P. on the Sinking Fund. 9. Plan of a Reform in Parliament. Republished with Observations, by

Sir Philip Francis, K.B. 10. Practical Observations on the Management of the Poor. By the Rev. Thomas Lee. (*Original.*) 11. On National Prejudices. By John Burrows, Esq. (*Original.*)

Memoirs of John Philip Kemble, Esq. with a critique on his performance. By John Ambrose Williams, author of Metrical Essays.

Journal of an English Traveller, from 1814 to 1816, with Anecdotes of her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales, Letters, &c.

A View of the Nature and Operation of Bank Currency, as connected with the Distresses of the Country. By W. T. Comber, author of an Inquiry into the State of National Subsistence.

1. Remarks on the essentials of a Free Government, and on the genuine Constitution of the British House of Commons, in answer to the theories of Modern Reformers. By the Rev. D. M. Peacock. A. M. 2. Address to the two Houses of Parliament on the importance of the Corn Laws to the National Revenue.

The Speech of D. W. Webber in the House of Commons, on the Catholic Question.

Plan of Parliamentary Reform, in the form of a Catechism, with Reasons for each Article; and an Introduction, shewing the necessity of radical, and the inadequacy of moderate Reform. By Jeremy Bentham, Esq.

An Explanation of the interesting Prophecy respecting the Two Apocalyptic Witnesses, as fulfilled by the institution and progress of the British and Foreign Bible Society, and illustrating the termination of the 1260 days; or prophetic years,

referred to in that and other relative prophecies.

A Letter to a Clergyman of the Diocese of Bath and Wells, upon certain Clauses said to be contained in the proposed "Bill to consolidate the Laws relating to Spiritual Persons;" and upon certain Resolutions, relating to these Clauses, lately adopted and published by the Clergy of the rural Deanery of Cary, in the said diocese. From a Beneficed Clergyman of the Diocese of Lincoln.

Germanicus, Tragedie, en Cinq Actes, et en Vers, par A. V. Arnault, 8vo.

A Translation of the above in blank Verse. by George Bernal, 8vo.

A Description of the Pictures in the Royal Museum at the Louvre, with Biographical Notices of the different Painters; to which is added, a Description of the Museum of Sculpture in the lower gallery, 18mo.

Planta's New Picture of Paris, 6th edition, much enlarged and entirely recomposed. Illustrated with maps, plan, and numerous views of the public edifices, 18mo.

The Art of Correspondence, consisting of French and English Letters. Neat pocket volume.

Smith's Female Economist, or Plain System of Cookery. 4th edition, 12mo.

Dr. John Clarke, of Cambridge, has just published, in 2 volumes; Twenty-four Vocal Pieces, with original Poetry, written expressly for the work, by Mrs. Joanna Bail-

lie, Walter Scott, Esq. John Stewart, Esq. William Smith, Esq. James Hogg, the Scots Shepherd, and Lord Byron.

A Word in Season to my beloved Country, 8vo.

A Picture of the Present State of the Royal College of Physicians of London. Containing memoirs biographical, critical and literary, of all the resident members of that Society, and of the heads of the Medical Boards, with some other distinguished professional characters; to which is subjoined, an Appendix, containing an Account of the different Medical Institutions of the Metropolis, Scientific and Charitable, with their present Establishments.

The Traveller's Guide to France and the Netherlands; containing the various Modes and Expenses of Travelling in those Countries; the comparative value of French, Dutch, Belgian, and English Money; the Custom House Duties, Post Regulations, Sailing of Packets, &c. and exhibiting Twelve Routes to Paris, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Brussels, &c. shewing the Distances between each Town, in French Posts and English Miles, with a Description of such Curious and Interesting Objects as present themselves on the Road. Illustrated by a map. To which is added, the Route from London to Geneva, Lausanne, and Neuchatel. By John Sugden, Foreign Agent, and Agent for Packets, London.

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## TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Several works of importance are unavoidably postponed, but they shall in due time meet with the proper attention.